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## REVIEWS

*The Caucasian Provinces—Georgia, Armenia, &c. in the years 1825–7. [Voyage aux Indes Orientales par le Nord de l'Europe, les Provinces de Caucase, la Georgie, l'Arménie, la Perse, &c. &c.]* By M. Charles Belanger. Paris, 1836–7. London, Dulau & Co.

THE interest with which, in consequence of the capture of the *Vixen*, public attention has of late been directed towards the Caucasian provinces, induced us to send to Paris for this work, as likely to contain the latest information relating to the state of the country. It appears that M. Belanger, a young physician and naturalist, accompanied the Vicomte Desbassay de Richemont on his overland journey to Pondicherry, where he was proceeding as *Commissaire ordonnateur* of the French possessions in India, being charged at the same time with a diplomatic mission to the Shah of Persia. The legation started from Paris on the 9th January, 1825, in a diligence, and even without a servant! They manage these affairs differently in England. At Strasbourg, however, they set up a carriage; and our author began to make notes for the work before us: Strasbourg, Munich, Vienna, and Cracow, are however more fully described in guide books. From the latter city the legation proceeded through Galicia to Odessa. M. Belanger's remarks on the state of the Jews, and on the Russian administration generally, are sometimes pertinent and just, at others very absurd—indeed, it appears to us, that he is a somewhat confiding traveller, and that, on more than one occasion, he must either have misunderstood what was told him, or have met with those pleasant fellows, who, finding a man eager in the pursuit of knowledge, are so unwilling to let him lose his labour, that they manufacture at the moment extraordinary "facts" and opinions, as the objects specially sought after, and most welcome. At Odessa, however, he fell into better hands, and he is enabled to offer to the reader some important information relating to the commerce of that place and the other ports of the Black Sea; but we pass it by, having lately (No. 456, 457) treated fully on that subject. He also received from the Count de Witt, many interesting particulars of the military colonies founded by the Emperor Alexander; but the English public are already well informed on the subject, through the work of Mr. Lyall,† the general accuracy of which is acknowledged by the Count. On the 23rd of March our travellers reached Mozdok, situated on the Terek, and at the entrance of one of the most important passes through the Caucasian chain, and this brings us to the immediate subject of this paper, in which we propose to give a slight historical sketch of the Caucasian provinces.

The country situated between the Caspian and the Black Sea acquires every day more and more importance in the eyes of the European public. The Caucasian chain which intersects it, and stretches from the Caspian to the Black Sea, forms a strong barrier between Europe and Asia;—the possession of which barrier by Russia is indispensable to that power's aggrandisement in the east, and may be considered as a key to its

future conquests, or at least to the extension of its political and commercial relations with the nations spread over the vast tract of country extending from the shores of the Mediterranean to the borders of Hindoostan. The name given to this range of mountains is very ancient, although unknown to the Asiatic nations, except to the Georgians and Armenians, who received it from the Greeks. It was originally restricted to the chain of mountains to which we now refer, but the later Greek writers having learnt that a gigantic ridge separated India from the north, included the whole under the one general appellation.

Sesostris, who, about the thirteenth century before our era, extended his conquests towards the north as far as the Tanais, or Don, settled a colony of Egyptians on the banks of the river Phasis (now Rion), which was the foundation of the kingdom of Colchis; and Herodotus states, that evidence of this existed in the physical constitution, manners, and language of the people, even in his time. In the seventh century before our era, the Greeks began to establish colonies on the north-eastern coasts of the Black Sea, but as the commercial intercourse of these colonies with the highlanders of the Caucasus was very limited, the Greeks did not acquire any precise information relating either to the country or its inhabitants.

In the second century before the Christian era, when Mithridates, vanquished by the Romans, retired into the Caucasus, Pompey pursued him, but without penetrating the highlands. During their wars in Albania and Iberia, the Romans obtained more specific information relating to the countries: but the Emperor Trajan was the first who extended the Roman domination over them. The influence of the Romans, however, was at all times very limited, and they ruled there only when they had a sufficient power to enforce their authority. But the introduction of the Christian religion, drew tighter the bonds which united some of these countries to the Byzantine empire.

The commotion produced in Western Asia by the appearance of Mohammed, rapidly extended to the Caucasian provinces. Mohammed himself, indeed, meditated an expedition into the country, in order to avenge the insult offered to his legates by the monarch of the Khazarst, but he was unable to execute his plan, and his immediate successors were too much engaged at home and in the adjacent countries, to undertake so distant an expedition, even though expressly commanded by the Prophet. In the year 684 the Arabs first gained a footing in these provinces; and in 733, the dominion of the Khalifs was established in the Eastern Caucasus, as well as in a part of Georgia. The new sovereigns sent thither many colonies from different provinces of their empire, and traces of these are still discoverable, chiefly in the many Arabic words found in the language of the Lesghis. As the power of the Khalifs declined, the Georgian princes began to resume their ancient authority, and in the eleventh and twelfth centuries they were enabled not only to

† The Khazars were a nation probably of Turkish origin; they became known as a powerful state about the seventh century. Their capital was situated not far from the mouth of the Volga, probably on the site of Astrachan, and their dominion included the Crimea and a great part of the south-eastern provinces of the present empire of Russia, and extended along the shores of the Caspian, which the Eastern geographers have frequently called the Khazarium.

maintain themselves as independent sovereigns, but to extend their authority and dominions. The glory and prosperity of Georgia passed away with the twelfth century. Early in the next the country was overrun by the Moguls under Jenghiz Khan, and its princes became tributaries of the Persian monarchy.

The invasion of Timur Lenk, or Tamerlane, towards the close of the fourteenth century, was even more disastrous. Jenghiz Khan was content with conquest and tribute, but Tamerlane desired to convert the conquered nations to Mohammedanism—and to attain that object, the most horrible cruelties were perpetrated, and the Christians of Georgia were amongst the principal sufferers.

After Tamerlane's death the King of Georgia re-asserted his independence, expelled the Mohammedans, and re-established the Christian religion; but the subsequent division of the kingdom among his children led to its subjugation; and in the beginning of the sixteenth century we find that Georgia, Shirvan, Daghestan, and nearly all the eastern Caucasian nations, acknowledged the authority of Persia; whilst the Turks had possessed themselves of the Western Highlands, both powers leaving the administration in the hands of the native princes, many of whom turned Mohammedans. From that time the Caucasian provinces were the constant battle-field of the Turks and the Persians.

Towards the middle of the sixteenth century Muscovy, for the first time, began to intermeddle in these disputes, and to exercise an influence over those countries; and as that influence has been progressively extending over Asia, and is now become an object of universal attention, a brief sketch of its progress may not be uninteresting.

The Venetian Ambassador, Contarini, relates that he found in that country (1475) Marco Ruffo, an Italian, acting in the capacity of agent to the Grand Duke of Muscovy. The Russian chronicles also make mention of an embassy sent by the sovereign of Georgia to Moscow in 1492, to solicit the protection of the Czar, but say nothing as to the result of that mission. These diplomatic relations, however, do not appear to have been followed up until after a lapse of more than half a century, and when the Tatar kingdom of Astrachan had been conquered by the generals of Ivan Vassilovich the terrible. This conquest was effected in 1553, by an expedition which floated on barks and rafts down the Volga and other great rivers, flowing from the interior of Russia into the Caspian and Black Sea. The possession of Astrachan brought the Muscovite Empire into frequent contact with the nations inhabiting the shores of the Caspian and the Caucasian highlands. The people of the latter were especially favoured and flattered by the Muscovites; and, on the death of his first wife, Ivan Vassilovich married, in 1561, the daughter of one of the Circassian Princes. This alliance induced many Circassians to enter the service of the Czar, and a brother of his wife is especially remembered in the chronicles as one of the most ferocious blood-hounds of the tyrant.†

The Ottoman Porte, and her vassal, the Khan

† The Czar's treasurer, with his wife and four infant children, were cut in pieces by order of this Circassian Prince.—*Karamatin*, vol. 9, p. 99, 4th edit.

† An account of the organization, administration, and the present state of the military colonies of Russia.—London, 1824.

of Crimea, could not remain indifferent to the extension of Russian influence amongst the Caucasian highlanders, and Soliman the Great endeavoured, but ineffectually, in 1552, when Kasan was threatened by Ivan, to induce the Nogais and other Tatar tribes to unite in order to save that bulwark of Islamism on the banks of the Volga. The fall of Astrachan increased the apprehensions of the Porte, until, in 1569, Selim, the successor of Soliman, sent an army to attack the Muscovites, and besieged that city; but the expedition, which had been undertaken under unfavourable circumstances, failed.

About the same time the Czar opened negotiations with Persia, through the instrumentality of Jenkinson, who had been sent by Queen Elizabeth to that country, and who, in order to extend and secure the privileges granted to English merchants in Muscovy, forwarded, with great zeal, the Czar's interests. It appears, from the relation of Jenkinson, that he was the first promoter of Russian influence in Georgia:—

"15 day of March, 1562, I took leave of his highnesse, who did not only give me letters as aforesaid (of commendation to divers princes), but also committed matters of importance and charge unto me, to be done when I should arrive in those countreys whither I intended to go."  
—Vide Hackluit, vol. i. p. 344.

"And during my abode in Shamashi there came unto me an Armenian, sent from the King of Georgia, who declared the lamentable estate of the same king; that being enclosed betwixt these two cruel tyrants and mightie princes—the said great Turke and the Sophie—he had continuall warres with them, requiring for the love of Christ, and as I was a Christian, I would send him comfort by the said Armenian, and advise how he might send his Ambassadour to the sayd Emperour of Russia, and whether I thought he would support him or not, and with many other wordes required me to declare his necessitie to the same Emperour at my returne. Adding further, that the said king would have written to me his minde, but that he doubted the safe passage of his messenger, unto whom I did likewise answer by word of mouth, not only persuading him to send his Ambassadour to Russia, not doubting that he should find him most honourable, and inclined to helpe him—but also I directed him his way how the said king might send by the countrey of Chircassie, trough the favour of Tenezat, king of the said countrey, whose daughter the said king had lately married."—*Ibid.* p. 350.

"Shortly after my comming to Mosco I came before the Emperour's majestie, and presented to him the apparell given unto me by the Sophie, whose highnesse conferred with me touching the prince's affaires which he had committed to my charge; and my proceedings therein, it pleased him so to accept that they were much to his contentation, saying unto me, I have perceived your good service, for the which I do thank you, and will recompense you for the same, wishing I would travill again in such his affaires, wherein he was minded to employ me; to whom I answered, that it was to my heartie rejoycing that my service was so acceptable to his highnesse, acknowledging that all I have done to bee but as dutie, humbly beseeching his grace to continue his goodness unto your worshipps (the society of merchants adventurers); and even at that instant I humbly requested his majestie to vouchsafe to grant unto you a new privilege, more ample than the first, which immediately was granted, and so I departed."—*Ibid.* p. 351.

It is amusing to observe, that the Russian influence in Georgia and Persia, about which there has of late been such an outcry, was at first chiefly promoted by our own Ambassador.

The result of these negotiations was, that Alexander, King of Kakhet (Eastern Georgia), was, on the 5th October, 1586, formally taken under the protection of the Czar; and, in consequence, a fort on the Terek, originally raised for the protection of the Emperor's father-in-law, but abandoned to please the Sultan, was restored, and an expedition sent from Astrachan to Daghestan. Encouraged by these proceedings, and the presence of a Russian envoy, Alexander began to assemble troops; and when the Pachas of the adjacent Turkish fortresses summoned him to furnish provisions, he declined, answering that he was the vassal of the Czar. His new protectors, however, were either unable or unwilling to afford him efficient support, and they advised him to *amuse the Sultan*, and instead of troops sent priests and painters to adorn the Georgian churches. Having granted this spiritual aid, the Czar assumed the title of "*Lord of the Iberian country, of the Georgian Czars, of the Albardaks, and of the Circassian and Highland Princes*," leaving to his successors to establish a right to it—a task which still remains to be accomplished.

Alexander soon found that the Russian priests and image painters were very insufficient protection, and he was obliged to pay tribute to the infidels. At length, however, in 1604, Godonoff, the successor of Fedor, sent a military force into Daghestan, but Alexander had in the interval been forced to join, with his contingent of troops, the army of Shah Abbas, and he was soon after murdered by the Persian soldiers. The Turks, justly alarmed at the progress of the Muscovites, now attacked them, and aided by the Caucasian highlanders, soon expelled them from Daghestan. Thus ended the first attempt of the Russians to establish their domination in the Caucasian provinces, and it was not renewed till the reign of Peter the Great, notwithstanding the supplications addressed in 1638 and 1650, to the Czars, Michel and Alexis, by the Georgian and Imiretian princes.

In 1717, Peter entered into a treaty with Persia, but from the distracted state of that country no result followed. In 1718 the Lesghis invaded Shirvan, captured and pillaged the principal towns, and massacred the inhabitants, among whom were 300 Russians; the merchants of Moscow lost property to the amount of 650,000*l.* Peter immediately demanded redress from the Shah, who being himself in the greatest distress from the inroads of the Afghans, supplicated the Czar to assist him against his enemies. Peter, in 1722, entered at the head of 100,000 men the Persian provinces situated on the western shores of the Caspian Sea, took Tarkú, Bakú, and Derbend, and concluded a treaty with the Shah, by which the latter ceded to him, on condition of receiving assistance against the Afghans, the provinces of Daghestan, Shirvan, Ghilan, Mazanderan, and Astera-bad. These provinces were accordingly occupied by the Russian troops, but the promised assistance against the Afghans was never given.

Peter died in 1725, and his acquisitions in Persia were surrendered by the Empress Anne in 1732 to Nadir Shah. This monarch, who restored for a time the fallen fortunes of Persia, defeated the Turks at Erivan, expelled them from Georgia, and established on its throne a prince of the ancient royal dynasty of that country. After the above-mentioned cession, the Russian frontier was circumscribed by the line of the Caucasus, and the river Kaytú. Whilst the two Kabarduks, inhabited by the Circassians, were declared independent by the treaty of Belgrade, between Russia and Turkey, in 1737.

§ This is the expression used in the dispatches. See Karamsin, vol. xi.

Heraclius, the Georgian monarch, not only maintained his own power, but soon rendered tributary some of the neighbouring Persian Khans. Notwithstanding, he caused the ruin of his dynasty by introducing the Russians into his country. Though a vassal of Persia, he entered into a secret negotiation with Catherine II.; and in 1769 joined the Russian army, sent to assist the King of Imiretia against the Turks. In 1783 Heraclius threw off the sovereignty of Persia altogether, and acknowledged himself a vassal of Russia. By the treaty entered into on the occasion, Russia guaranteed to him and his posterity, not only his actual possessions, but even his future acquisitions. She also promised to defend Georgia against all enemies, and granted many privileges to such natives of that country as desired either to serve, to trade, or to settle in Russia. In fulfilment of the treaty, a Russian army entered Georgia; and Persia, being in a distracted state, was unable to make any attempt at restoring her ancient sovereignty over that country. At last, in 1795, Agha Mahomed Khan assembled an army, and summoned the King of Georgia to acknowledge his supremacy. Heraclius refused, and the Persians advanced on Tiflis. Messenger after messenger were dispatched to obtain succour from the commander of the Russian forces stationed to the north of the Caucasus, but in vain. Heraclius was defeated, and obliged to seek refuge in the mountain, and the Persians entered Tiflis, ravaged the city, and led into captivity the greater part of the inhabitants. At length a Russian army entered Daghestan, and the Persians agreed to restore the prisoners taken at Tiflis. On the death of Catherine, her son and successor Paul, who took especial pleasure in pursuing a policy directly contrary to that of his mother, recalled the Russian troops from Daghestan, and ordered them to evacuate Georgia.

Heraclius died in 1798, and was succeeded by his son George XIII., an imbecile prince, during whose reign Georgia was constantly exposed to the inroads of the Lesghis and the Turks. The miserable state of the country, consequent on the weakness of the government, reduced some of the more influential princes and noblemen to send secret emissaries to St. Petersburg, requesting the Emperor to incorporate it with Russia. This had long been expected, and Paul immediately directed his troops to enter Georgia, and the sovereign was required formally to submit to the domination of Russia. This he consented to; and after his death in 1800, the Cabinet of St. Petersburg appointed his son Governor of Georgia, and in 1802 that country was declared a Russian province, and all the princes of the royal family were carried into Russia, where they had pensions settled on them, and received high military ranks. The Court of Russia knew perfectly well, that the possession of Georgia could only be secured by occupying all the country between the Caspian and the Black Sea, and they accordingly took possession of the provinces of Daghestan, Shirvan, and Karabagh. Thus the country of the Lesghis and all the eastern Caucasus became inclosed by Russian possessions, and by the military line which passes the chain of the Caucasus, following the valleys of the upper Terek, and of the Aragas. The Russians tried also to extend their possessions to the south of the Kartli, but both their expeditions against Erivan in 1804 and 1808 failed. The Russian possessions on the borders of Persia were considerably increased by the treaty of Gulistan, in 1813; and by the peace of Toorkmanchay in 1828, Persia ceded to Russia all the territory situated north of the Araxes.

In 1808, Imiretia was taken under the protection of Russia, and Mingrelia occupied with her



troops; and both were subsequently declared Russian provinces.

During the war between Russia and Turkey, which preceded the treaty of Bukharest, the Russians took all the fortresses which the Turks had erected since 1783 on the sea coast, between the mouth of the Rion, or ancient Phasis, and the Cimmerian Bosphorus. The restitution of these was stipulated for in the above-mentioned treaty, but only Anapa and Poti were surrendered, while the others were retained under pretence that the Turks had not evacuated Moldavia and Wallachia; Anapa and Poti were again taken by the Russians during the last war with Turkey, and formally ceded by the treaty of Adrianople.

We have here given a slight historical sketch of these countries, and shall on a future occasion advert to their present state and condition, and to the manners and government of the people.

*A Summer in the Pyrenees.* By the Hon. James Esquire Murray. 2 vols. 8vo. Macrone.

We thank Mr. Murray for deviating from the beaten track,—as beaten indeed as a bowling-green,—of our locomotive countrymen. A pedestrian journey along the chain of the Pyrenees, from the Mediterranean to the western extremity of Bearn, is at least a novelty; and even if described with no great ability, is sure to be interesting. The example is not likely to have many imitators. Few have the physical constitution of the author; fewer still have, like him, strengthened one naturally good, by frequent exercise in the Scottish Highlands; scarcely any are blessed with his cheerfulness of temper, under privations of every kind. A companion more resolute or more agreeable than he, is not easily to be found.

Mr. Murray admits us into his society at Toulouse, previous to conducting us to Perpignan. In that city, he heard much of the military operations of the year 1814, when Soult and Wellington contended for victory. Though they have been frequently related, it is not generally known that some blunders were committed by the English hero. The greatest was that after the battle of Orthes, while Soult hastened by the nearest route to Toulouse, Wellington followed slowly and by a longer route. The consequence was such as any one might have foreseen—the Frenchman eagerly fortified the outworks of the city; hence the carnage attending the next battle, an evil that might well have been averted. This was not the only occasion in which the extraordinary caution, the timid circumspection of our great captain was exhibited; it was not peculiar to this place or this occasion. We, ourselves, have had opportunities of verifying the truth of this and other charges on the spot; but, strange to say, we find no mention of such errors in the historians of his campaigns. And thus it is, that posterity is misled by contemporary writers.

On his way to Perpignan, our traveller passed through Carcassonne, a place full of historical recollections; through Limoux, famous for the shrine of Our Lady, which to this day draws its host of pilgrims; through Quilán, situated in the midst of a bleak, barren country, at the foot of the hills overlooking the county of Roussillon; and through the desolate track between the summit of the ridge and Perpignan. In the descent from that summit to the village of Canilles, his neck was in danger, and well it might be: for though the path is as precipitous as it can be, and always on one, sometimes on both sides yawn frightful gulphs, without so much as a chain or ledge of any kind, the diligence galloped down the hill with great velocity. When half way down, a fragment of rock, some thirty

tons in weight, being loosened from the mountain by the rains, whizzed in front of the vehicle, while another of equal magnitude passed in the rear, and destroyed half the road. Equal danger was to be apprehended, if, as would probably be the case, the horses should take fright. Mr. Murray, however, who is something of a Jehu, leaped from the inside, took his seat by the driver, and by his directions the animals were kept close to the side which happened to have no precipice. Still, the descent was one of extreme hazard; for the path is merely just broad enough to admit the wheels, and the least start would have been fatal. When will travellers learn wisdom? Why did not Mr. Murray walk down the mountain side? The distance is scarcely a mile.

Roussillon, independent of its historical recollections, of which our author knows nothing, has little to interest our visitor. He has discovered that—

“Their language, which now-a-days is called the *patois* of the country, is remarkable for its antiquity. It is one of those ancient idioms known under the various denominations of vulgar Roman, broken Latin, provincial or Provençal, the Limousin, or the Catalan. Traces of their language are to be found in the poetry of the Salian rhymes, many words of which, although long since rejected in the Latin, have been preserved in the Catalan. It may, therefore, be supposed to be a child of Greece, prior to the period when Democritus grammaticised the Latin language.”

We shall make no comment on this profound communication, but proceed with him westwards. At Ceret, in the valley of the Tech, he found a native “deeply enamoured of Ossian’s poems,” of which he had a French translation; and discovering that I came from the “land of brown heath and shaggy wood,” he talked in raptures of Fingal, Morven, and the northern heroes. Such coincidences are not uncommon: we have found ‘The Vicar of Wakefield,’ for instance, in a peasant’s cabin, in a region much less frequented than that of Roussillon. Mr. Murray would often find, though he does not make the comparison, the scenery of the Pyrenees greatly superior to that of his native Highlands. There is often the same desolation, the same grandeur; but there is also greater variety of prospect, while many of the mountains are wooded nearly to the summits, and the dark pine shakes its head to the blast. What in the Highlands could be compared with the view from the summit of Canigou, which is raised about one mile and three quarters above the level of the sea? In one direction lies the plain of Roussillon, and beyond it the coast of Languedoc washed by the sea; Perpignan, though distant sixty miles, appears within cannon shot. A little more to the south were the Alberes, opening their valleys to the eye; and there was the diversified scenery of Catalonia, one of the most picturesque of the Spanish provinces:—

“To imagine the grandeur and sublimity of this bird’s-eye view of a prospect which my powers of description would in vain attempt to portray, the reader must suppose himself standing upon a pinnacle from nine to ten thousand feet above the surrounding district, with comparatively few intervening objects to limit a horizon of from thirty to sixty miles. He must then, with all the advantages of the finest weather, enhanced by the bright sky and pure atmosphere of the south, suppose himself from his aerial height looking down upon this great extent of country, its villages and houses appearing no larger than molehills, its greatest rivers dwindled into streams, and enclosures of every kind being imperceptible; the whole plain resembling one vast garden, its trees becoming shrubs, its great fields of vines distinguishable merely by the tinge of verdure which they give to the landscape. He can then, by turning round, vary the prospect to one of ‘woods, and wilds, and solitary places,’ trace the range of the Pyrenees as far

as his eye can reach, even to the Maladetta and Mon Perdu, and again look upon no small portion of the land of dark eyes and darker deeds.”

At Valmanía, one of the most sequestered parts of the chain, and at the foot of the Canigou, Mr. Murray discovers a castle which he thinks Mrs. Radcliffe might have chosen for her ‘Mysteries of Udolpho.’ He is doubtful, however, that she ever saw it, or that it was ever visited by English foot. In the former supposition he is probably right; in the latter he is assuredly mistaken; for in one English romance the scene is laid in this very place, and its localities are so minutely described as to leave no doubt that the author visited them. “It would be difficult,” says Mr. Murray, “to find a place more suited to the lawless purposes of a feudal chief, than a stronghold in this savage and secluded little valley.” It was the residence of a feudal chief, himself dependent on the Counts de Foix; and at one time it was the stronghold of a formidable band of robbers,—as late, indeed, as the 15th century,—a fact of which he is evidently not aware. In this hamlet—for it can scarcely be called a village—he had to learn the manner of drinking peculiar to the region. A bottle of wine was brought him; but how was he to manage without glasses, and without so far violating the usage of good Pyrenean society, as to touch the mouth of it with his lips? That usage is, to hold the bottle at arm’s length above the head, and “send the liquor, like a jet from a fountain, down the throat.” He had not, as we may readily conceive, much dexterity in this novel mode of drinking, and his breast received more than his throat. To do him justice, however, he became more expert in the sequel; and though, on one occasion, some arch young girls watched his motions with a malicious expectation, he disappointed them; every drop went down the dark lane.

Mr. Murray is quite pleased with his discovery of a republic—that of Andorre, in the very heart of the Pyrenees.

“Andorre is composed of three mountain valleys; of the basin formed by the union of those valleys, and its embouchure, which stretches towards the Spanish Urgel. Its valleys are the wildest and most picturesque in the Pyrenees, and the mountains, with their immense peaks, which inclose it, amongst the highest and most inaccessible. Its length from north to south may be six and thirty miles; from east to west, thirty. It is bounded on the north by Arriege; on the south by the district of Urgel; on the west by the valley of Paillass; and on the east by that of Carol. It contains six communes; Andorre, the chief town, Canillo, Encham, La Massane, Urdino, Saint Julien, and above thirty villages or hamlets.

“The government is composed of a council of twenty-four; each commune electing four members, who are chosen for life. The council elect a Syndic, who convokes the assemblies, and takes the charge of public affairs. He enjoys great authority, and when the assemblies are not sitting, he has the complete government of the community. • • •

“The Andorrians are simple and severe in their manners, and the vices and corruptions of cities have not hitherto found their way into their valleys, still, in comparison with the rest of the world, the abode of virtue and content. The inhabitants live as their forefathers lived a thousand years before them, and the little they know concerning the luxuries, the arts, and the civilization of other countries, inspiring them rather with fear than envy. Their wealth consists in the number of sheep or cattle they possess, or the share they may have in the iron forges, only a very few of their number being the proprietors of any extent of land beyond the little garden which surrounds their cottage. Each family acknowledges a chief, who succeeds by right of primogeniture. These chiefs, or eldest sons, choose their wives from families of equal consideration with their own, reprobating mes-alliances, and looking little to fortune, which besides is always very small upon both

sides. The eldest sons have, even during the lives of their parents, a certain status, being considered as the representatives of their ancestors; they never leave the paternal roof until they marry, and if they marry an heiress they join her name to their own; and unless married they are not admitted to a charge of public affairs.

"When there are only daughters in a family, the eldest, who is an heiress, and succeeds as an eldest son would do, is always married to a cadet of another, who adopts her name, and is domiciliated in her family; and by this arrangement, the principal Andorrian houses have continued for centuries without any change in their fortunes, *ni plus riche—ni plus pauvre*. They are married by their priests, after having had their banns, as in Scotland, proclaimed in their parish church for three successive Sundays. The poorest of the inhabitants are in Andorre not so badly off as in other countries, their wants are few and easily supplied, the opulent families taking care of those who are not; and they in gratitude honour and respect their benefactors.

"The Andorrians are in general strong and well proportioned; the greater part of the diseases proceeding from the moral affections are unknown, as well as those from vice and corruption. The costume of the men is simply composed of the coarse brown cloth made from the wool of their own sheep; it resembles that worn by the peasants of Bigorre, with this difference, that the Andorrians wear the flowing red cap of the Catalans: the women dress exactly as the Catalan women do; they are not admitted to any of the assemblies where public affairs are considered; nay, so little has the wisdom of the sage Andorrians coincided with that of the British parliament, expressed upon a late occasion, that the ladies are not even allowed to assist at the masses which are performed upon the reception of the bishop or the judge. Crime of every kind is very rare, and the punishments awarded to culprits are, although mild, sufficiently effectual. There are no law-suits relative to paternal successions; and should disputes of any kind arise, they are at once referred to the Syndic, whose decision is never controverted. All the males are liable to serve as militia, should they be required, and every head of a family is obliged to have in his possession at all times a musket and a certain quantity of powder and balls.

"Commerce of every kind is free in Andorre, but as its industry is only employed in the manufacture of the most indispensable articles, and these are of the most indifferent nature, it has little to exchange for the produce of other countries, excepting its iron, the whole of which is sold to Spain, the high duties prohibiting its entrance into France. The republic is not without its arms, which are those of Bear, quartered with those of Foix."

Whatever be the pride of these republicans, our traveller found them to be the filthiest people he ever saw. Hear his description of Escaldos.

"About three hours from the time we left the forge, we reached Escaldos, the first of the villages which are situated in the basin of Andorre. It was, without exception, the very dirtiest village in which I had ever been, consisting of, perhaps, a hundred houses as irregularly built, and as irregularly jumbled together, as the most ardent admirer of the picturesque in architecture could desire: they were generally of two stories; the mules, cattle, goats, and fire-wood occupying the under one, while the family were quartered in the upper. The lanes or passages between the houses were so narrow, that from the balcony which each building was dignified with, it would have been no difficult matter for a family to have visited their opposite neighbours without troubling themselves with descending into the street. Through a labyrinth of these dingy and odoriferous lanes, we found our way to the best Posada of the place, the comforts of which were quite compatible with the character of the village. As usual, the under story was allotted to the bestial portion of the establishment, and any chance guests of the same fraternity; a winding wooden stair in the far corner of this stable, cow-shed, piggery, hen-house, wine-cellar, &c., &c., into which there came no streak of light but that which was admitted by the door, conducted to the upper regions of this house of entertainment. The second story was divided into sections; one of which

served the joint purposes of kitchen and coffee-room, the other as a sleeping apartment for the guests."

Mr. Murray visited about twenty of the houses, and he found all alike. "The furniture consisted of one or two rude pine tables and stools, which, from smoke and dirt, had become so dark in colour as to resemble ebony; a few plates, a copper pan, and a few wooden spoons." The beds were intolerable; and, on the whole, he was of opinion that the interior of the meanest Irish cabin is a palace compared with most of the huts in this territory. "The women," he tells us, "were generally handsome," and some of them, he thinks, were beautiful, but then they all wanted "the scrubbing brush and soap," to make their features visible.

While our author was in this town of Escaldos, a republican council was held. It was to deliberate on the means of preserving the integrity of the state, which had been violated by parties both of Carlists and Christinos. It was held in a large barn or granary, attached to a mill: the miller himself was the mayor, and, consequently, the presiding officer. Mr. Murray and a companion were suffered to be present, and even two small stools were provided for their accommodation. "There might be about eighty individuals," constituting this municipal council, the younger part of whom were not permitted to sit; indeed, there were no seats for them; but most squatted themselves on the flour-sacks and sheep-skins, which our friend the miller had provided for them. There was some haranguing, but no opposition. The council decreed that, according to a law of the republic, each citizen should have his musket in order, with a suitable quantity of ammunition; that vengeance should be taken on both the Carlists and Christinos that should hereafter be so audacious as to insult the honour of the state. After the general interests had been thus secured, it was high time to look after private ones,—and, corporation like, dinner was ordered in the miller's house. This gentleman *deserved* to fill an office of so much dignity; for he was known to possess half a dozen pewter spoons, which he could display on extraordinary occasions; and, by some means or other, he had added to his domestic riches a few steel knives and forks.

"Dinner was soon announced by the hissing of the soup, as it was emptied into the wooden tureen, which was placed upon the centre of the long, narrow pinetable, which was covered with a clean, but greyish white table-cloth. There seemed to be no great ceremony as to the particular places which the guests were to occupy, so I resigned to Etienne what would, at home, have been the place of honour, and seated myself where I had most chance of making myself understood, between a couple of the Maire's daughters. I did this upon principle; for I have invariably found, that the females of any country whose language I either spoke indifferently, or hardly understood, were far more apt and intelligent in comprehending what I wished to say, than the men.

"A spoon and a plate were set before each individual; and, all being seated, the Maire pulled the tureen towards him, helped himself, and pushed it round; the next person did the same; and so on. Then followed a large brown loaf, from which each person cut a pound, or more, of bread. The soup was composed of vegetables and bread; and a piece of pork, which afterwards made its appearance, was boiled in it. The soup was removed, and fowls, fish, and the piece of pork, succeeded. This constituted our dinner, and only wanted the few elegancies of civilized life, to have made it worthy of the table of the Lady Mayoress of any country town in France or England."

On this occasion, Mr. Murray disappointed the mischievous expectations of the mayor's daughters, by dexterously raising the mouth of the bottle to a proper angle with his throat, and sending the wine with a glorious gurgling sound down the orifice.

But if this republic was thus jealous of its independence, it was not always so of its security. At this very *posada* in Escaldos, the morning following the municipal display, our visitor and his guide were in some danger of being sacrificed by a few Spaniards who had just arrived; whether they were smugglers, Christinos, or Carlists, or a compound of two of them, he could not tell: they were powerful enough, however, to set the whole state at defiance; even the mayor was afraid of them, and asserted that they would think no more of shooting him than his dog. Through his own presence of mind, our traveller averted the danger; but in a day or two afterwards, while in another valley of the republic, he was, he thought, in equal danger, and from the very same party. He had reason to fear that he and his companions (he had two or three muleteers besides his guide) would be robbed and murdered during the night. To avert this design, if such were really formed, he and they refused to sleep in the *posada*, but retired to a hay-loft, trimmed the lamp, laid their fire-arms beside them, and ordered one to watch while the others slept. At midnight one of the party approached with silent step, but perceiving that the hands of all were placed on their muskets, and probably suspecting that one at least was awake, he retired in the same cautious manner. It must, however, be observed, that the inhabitants themselves have little cause for apprehension; their poverty is their best protection. In one village, and that by no means the smallest in the district, it was found barely possible to raise two francs and a half.

After all, the republicans of Andorre are an interesting people. Their morals are pure; their religion is ardent; their bodily constitutions are vigorous; their wants are few and easily supplied; and they are, in consequence, satisfied with their lot. With them patriotism is a feeling, no less than a principle,—a delight, no less than a duty. Neither luxury nor vice can penetrate into their region. Their property consists partly in sheep, and partly in the iron-forges scattered through the mountains. But with all their notions of independence, they recognize none of equality; on the contrary, they are among the most aristocratic people in the world. In their eyes, nothing is so unpardonable as an ill-assorted marriage; the youth or maiden who thus degrades a family, is thenceforward an outcast. Each family has a chief, whose dignity is hereditary; and one is very jealous of another. As the eldest daughter may, where there are no sons, inherit the property of the father, so she has all the rights of the house; and to prevent her marrying with the eldest son of any other house, and the mersion of her family name with that of a husband, care is taken to unite her with the *cadet* of some family,—the husband in this case being compelled to take *her* name, and to reside under her roof. The theory, that nature is favourable to equality, is contradicted by all experience. Nature abhors equality, in this sense, as much as she does a vacuum. Go wherever we may, among people in a primitive state of society, and we shall find either the paternal or the patriarchal authority existing to an extent inconceivable in more civilized countries. It is so among the Indians of the New World; it is so in the most obscure island of the Pacific, no less than in the wilds of the Pyrenees.—Here we must come to a close for this week.

*Memoirs of the Life of Sir Walter Scott, Bart.*  
Vol. I.

[Second Notice.]

WE broke off our last notice, somewhat abruptly, with Scott's marriage: let us, therefore, recommence with a character *in parvo* of the bride, and an anecdote:—

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"Notwithstanding the little leaning to the pomps and vanities of the world, which her letters have not concealed, she had made up her mind to find her happiness in better things; and so long as their circumstances continued narrow, no woman could have conformed herself to them with more of good feeling and good sense. Some habits, new in the quiet domestic circles of Edinburgh citizens, did not escape criticism; and in particular, I have heard herself, in her most prosperous days, laugh heartily at the remonstrances of her George Street landlady, when it was discovered that the *southern* lodger chose to sit usually, and not on high occasions merely, in her drawing-room,—on which subject the mother-in-law was disposed to take the thrifty old-fashioned dame's side."

Scott's house in South Castle Street, Edinburgh, seems to have formed the rallying point of most of the intellectual and friendly society of the Scottish metropolis. In the summer of 1798 (the year after his marriage) the poet made a cottage at Lasswade his temporary residence.

"Never, I have heard him say, was he prouder of his handywork than when he had completed the fashioning of a rustic archway, now overgrown with hoary ivy, by way of ornament to the entrance from the Edinburgh road."

Here, besides visits from his Scotch friends, he began to receive letters from England, directed to him as "a man of mark." In consequence of the admiration excited by his German ballads, he was solicited to contribute to the 'Tales of Wonder'—that *olla podrida* of horrors, made up of

Eye of newt, and toe of frog—

the contriver of which was Monk Lewis, of whom we have a lively portrait, taken from one of Scott's marginal notes, written in 1825, on Lord Byron's Diary:—

"Poor fellow," said Byron, "he died a martyr to his new riches—of a second visit to Jamaica."

I'd give the lands of Deloraine  
Dark Musgrave were alive again;

that is,

I would give many a sugar-cane  
Monk Lewis were alive again."

To which Scott adds:—"I would pay my share! how few friends one has whose faults are only ridiculous. His visit was one of humanity to ameliorate the condition of his slaves. He did much good by stealth, and was a most generous creature.... Lewis was fonder of great people than he ought to have been, either as a man of talent or as a man of fashion. He had always dukes and duchesses in his mouth, and was pathetically fond of any one that had a title. You would have sworn he had been a *parvenu* of yesterday, yet he had lived all his life in good society.... Mat had queerish eyes—they projected like those of some insects, and were flattish on the orbit. His person was extremely small and boyish—he was indeed the least man I ever saw, to be strictly well and neatly made. I remember a picture of him by Saunders being handed round at Dalkeith House. The artist had ingeniously flung a dark folding-mantle around the form, under which was half-hid a dagger, a dark lantern, or some such cut-throat appurtenance; with all this the features were preserved and ennobled. It passed from hand to hand into that of Henry, Duke of Buccleuch, who, hearing the general voice affirm that it was very like, said aloud, "Like Mat Lewis! Why that picture's like a Man!" He looked, and lo, Mat Lewis's head was at his elbow. This boyishness went through life with him. He was a child, and a spoiled child, but a child of high imagination; and so he wasted himself on ghost-stories and German romances. He had the finest ear for rhythm I ever met with—finer than Byron's."

The correspondence between Lewis and Scott led to a personal interview, and the further fruits of Scott's ballads, 'William and Helen,' and the 'Fire King.' Lewis, too, negotiated the publication of Scott's version of the 'Goetz von Berlichingen'—the copyright whereof was sold for twenty-five guineas—and this appeared in February, 1799. The 'House of Aspen,' published some twenty-five years afterwards in

'The Keepsake,' probably owed its origin to this translation. What an immense step is there between this—the first of Scott's *own* children—and 'Ivanhoe' and 'Kenilworth,' and the other works in which curious-coincidence-hunters have professed to find visible traces of his German studies.

It was in the April of the same year that Scott lost his father. The 'Glenfinlas' and the 'Eve of St. John'—"his first serious attempts in verse," as he calls them—were written at Lasswade in the course of the following autumn. Mr. Lockhart gives us also notices and fragments of two other ballads, never completed. From one of these, 'The Shepherd's Tale,' we must steal a few stanzas, which bring to us, with strange vividness, the days of Scott's first poetry:—

The moonbeams through the misty shower  
On yon dark cavern fell;  
Through the cloudy night, the snow gleamed white,  
Which sunbeam ne'er could quell.

"Yon cavern dark is rough and rude,  
And cold its jaws of snow;  
But more rough and rude are the men of blood  
That hunt my life below.

"Yon spell-bound den, as the aged tell,  
Was hewn by demon's hand;  
But I had found melle with the fiends of hell  
Than with Clavers and his band."

He heard the deep-mouthed bloodhound bark,  
He heard the horses neigh;  
He plunged him in the cavern dark,  
And downward sped his way.

Now faintly down the winding path  
Came the cry of the faulting hound,  
And the muttered oath of baulked wrath  
Was lost in hollow sound.

He threw him on the flinted floor,  
And held his breath for fear;  
He rose and bitter cursed his foes,  
As the sounds died on his ear.

"O bare thy arm, thou battling Lord,  
For Scotland's wandering land;  
Dash from the oppressor's grasp the sword,  
And sweep him from the land!"

"Forget not thou thy people's groans,  
From dark Dunnotter's tower,  
Mix'd with the seafowl's shrilly moans,  
And ocean's bursting roar!"

"O in fell Clavers' hour of pride,  
Even in his nightliest day,  
As bold he strides through conquest's tide,  
O stretch him on the clay!"

"His widow and his little ones,  
O may their tower of trust  
Remove its strong foundation stones  
And crush them in the dust!"

"Sweet prayers to me," a voice replied,  
"Thrice welcome, guest of mine!"—  
And glimmering on the cavern's side,  
A light was seen to shine.

An aged man, in amice brown,  
Stood by the wanderer's side,  
By powerful charm, a dead man's arm  
The torch's light supplied.

From each stiff finger stretched upright,  
Arose a ghastly flame,  
That waved not in the blast of night,  
Which through the cavern came.

We must pass, with a slight notice, the collection of Scotch ballads, which were printed by Ballantyne—"an experiment which," as Mr. Lockhart says, "changed wholly the course of his worldly fortunes, as well as his friends," and Scott's appointment to the sheriffship of Selkirkshire, which, by its securing him a certain income, gave him additional freedom to pursue his literary avocations. We must pass, too, the history of his 'Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border,' and the subsequent friendships he made with Leyden, and Laidlaw, and George Ellis, and Campbell, and Dr. Percy, and "Lichfield's Swan"—the clever but most pedantic Anna Seward—and close our notice with a passage or two relative to two brother poets, which will be found more generally interesting than the antiquarian correspondence which illustrates this period:—

"It was in the September of this year (1805) that Scott first saw Wordsworth. \* \* On the morning of the 17th of September, having left their carriage at Rosslyn, they walked down the valley to Lasswade,

and arrived there before Mr. and Mrs. Scott had risen. 'We were received,' Mr. Wordsworth has told me, 'with that frank cordiality which, under whatever circumstances I afterwards met him, always marked his manners; and, indeed, I found him then in every respect—except, perhaps, that his animal spirits were somewhat higher—precisely the same man that you knew him in later life; the same lively, entertaining conversation, full of anecdote, and averse from disquisition; the same unaffected modesty about himself; the same cheerful and benevolent and hopeful views of man and the world. He partly read and partly recited, sometimes in an enthusiastic style of chant, the first four cantos of the Lay of the Last Minstrel; and the novelty of the manners, the clear picturesque descriptions, and the easy glowing energy of much of the verse, greatly delighted me.'

"After this he walked with the tourists to Rosslyn, and promised to meet them in two days at Melrose. The night before they reached Melrose they slept at the little quiet inn of Clovenfurd, where, on mentioning his name, they were received with all sorts of attention and kindness,—the landlady observing that Mr. Scott, 'who was a very clever gentleman,' was an old friend of the house, and usually spent a good deal of time during the fishing season; but, indeed, says Mr. Wordsworth, 'wherever we named him, we found the word acted as an *open sesamum*; and I believe, that in the character of the *Sheriff's* friends, we might have counted on a hearty welcome under any roof in the border country.'

"He met them at Melrose on the 19th, and escorted them through the Abbey, pointing out all its beauties, and pouring out his rich stores of history and tradition. They then dined and spent the evening together at the inn; but Miss Wordsworth observed that there was some difficulty about arranging matters for the night, 'the landlady refusing to settle anything until she had ascertained from the *Sheriff himself* that he had no objection to sleep in the same room with *William*.' Scott was thus far on his way to the Circuit Court at Jedburgh, in his capacity of Sheriff, and there his new friends again joined him; but he begged that they would not enter the court, 'for,' said he, 'I really would not like you to see the sort of figure I cut there.' They did see him casually, however, in his cocked hat and sword, marching in the Judge's procession to the sound of one cracked trumpet, and were then not surprised that he should have been a little ashamed of the whole ceremonial. He introduced to them his friend William Laidlaw, who was attending the court as a jurymen, and who, having read some of Wordsworth's verses in a newspaper, was exceedingly anxious to be of the party, when they explored at leisure, all the law-business being over, the beautiful valley of the Jed, and the ruins of the Castle of Fernieherst, the original fastness of the noble family of Lothian. The grove of stately ancient elms about and below the ruin was seen to great advantage in a fine, grey, breezy, autumnal afternoon; and Mr. Wordsworth happened to say, 'What life there is in trees!'—How different," said Scott, "was the feeling of a very intelligent young lady, born and bred in the Orkney Islands who lately came to spend a season in this neighbourhood! She told me nothing in the mainland scenery had so much disappointed her as woods and trees. She found them so dead and lifeless, that she could never help pining after the eternal motion and variety of the ocean. And so back she has gone, and I believe nothing will ever tempt her from the *wind-swept Orkades* again."

"Next day they all proceeded together up the Teviot to Hawick, Scott entertaining his friends with some legend or ballad connected with every tower or rock they passed. He made them stop for a little to admire particularly a scene of deep and solemn retirement, called *Hornes Pool*, from its having been the daily haunt of a contemplative schoolmaster, known to him in his youth; and at Kirkton he pointed out the little village schoolhouse, to which his friend Leyden had walked six or eight miles every day across the moors 'when a poor barefooted boy.' From Hawick, where they spent the night, he led them next morning to the brow of a hill, from which they could see a wide range of the Border mountains, Ruberslaw, the Carter, and the Cheviots; and lamented that neither their engagements nor his own would permit them to make at this time an

excursion into the wilder glens of Liddisdale, 'where,' said he, 'I have strolled so often and so long, that I may say I have a home in every farm-house.' 'And, indeed,' adds Mr. Wordsworth, 'wherever we went with him, he seemed to know every body, and every body to know and like him.'

"I have already said something of the beginning of Scott's acquaintance with 'the Ettrick Shepherd.' Shortly after their first meeting, Hogg, coming into Edinburgh with a flock of sheep, was seized with a sudden ambition of seeing himself in print, and he wrote out that same night 'Willie and Katie,' and a few other ballads, already famous in the Forest, which some obscure bookseller gratified him by putting forth accordingly; but they appear to have attracted no notice beyond their original sphere. Hogg then made an excursion into the Highlands, in quest of employment as overseer of some extensive sheep-farm; but, though Scott had furnished him with strong recommendations to various friends, he returned without success. He printed an account of his travels, however, in a set of letters in the Scots Magazine, which, though exceedingly rugged and uncouth, had abundant traces of the native shrewdness and genuine poetical feeling of this remarkable man. These also failed to excite attention; but, undeterred by such disappointments, the Shepherd no sooner read the third volume of the 'Minstrelsy,' than he made up his mind that the Editor's 'Imitations of the Ancients' were by no means what they should have been. 'Immediately,' he says, in one of his many Memoirs of himself, 'I chose a number of traditional facts, and set about imitating the manner of the Ancients myself.' These imitations he transmitted to Scott, who warmly praised the many striking beauties scattered over their rough surface. The next time that Hogg's business carried him to Edinburgh, he waited upon Scott, who invited him to dinner in Castle Street, in company with William Laidlaw, who happened also to be in town, and some other admirers of the rustic genius. When Hogg entered the drawing-room, Mrs. Scott, being at the time in a delicate state of health, was reclining on a sofa. The Shepherd, after being presented, and making his best bow, forthwith took possession of another sofa placed opposite to hers, and stretched himself thereupon at all his length; for, as he said afterwards, 'I thought I could never do wrong to copy the lady of the house.' As his dress at this period was precisely that in which any ordinary herdsman attends cattle to the market, and as his hands, moreover, bore most legible marks of a recent sheep-shearing, the lady of the house did not observe with perfect equanimity the novel usage to which her chintz was exposed. The Shepherd, however, remarked nothing of all this—dined heartily and drank freely, and, by jest, anecdote, and song, afforded plentiful merriment to the more civilized part of the company. As the liquor operated, his familiarity increased and strengthened; from 'Mr. Scott' he advanced to 'Sherm' and thence to 'Scott,' 'Walter' and 'Wattie,'—until, at supper, he fairly convulsed the whole party by addressing Mrs. Scott as 'Charlotte.'"

#### OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

*The State Prisoner; a Tale of the French Regency.*—This is an agreeable and well-written novel. The plot hinges upon the fascination exercised by the "state prisoner" (Dumont) over the young hero, William Clifford, which compels the latter to peril his hopes of future happiness—nay, his life—to deliver the captive. To illustrate the proverbial course of true love, we have, for heroine, Blanch Courtenay, who is summoned back to England by a haughty father and mother, almost in the very moment of plighting her faith to the gallant young adventurer. It follows, of course, that she is, for a time, sundered from him by parental interposition, the addresses of a new and rich lover, and scandals which inform her that the bewitching Mirabel de Bernay has enticed her betrothed from his allegiance. This Mirabel, by the way, is the best character in the book; and, wayward and passionate as she was, her generosity and self-devotion merited a better reward than they have here found. The light of the tale goes out when she dies, and we care little afterwards to hear that the re-united pair "lived happily together to the end of their days, and

had sons and daughters." The escape-scenes in which she figures are the best in the book, but we have no room to extract from them, and can only further recommend the 'State Prisoner' as an eligible companion to all whose time hangs heavy on their hands.

*The Married Unmarried*, by the author of 'Almack's Revisited.'

One foot on land, and one on sea,  
To one thing constant never.

Of the hundred tales of adventure written in the spirit of the above couplet, the 'Married Unmarried' is assuredly not the worst—though improbable, not the most improbable, and though confusedly wound up, not the most abrupt in its dénouement. A mystery hangs over the birth of its hero, who is introduced to us as the adopted son of a pilot—by an unknown influence transferred from the pilot's cottage to a school, where he goes the round of hardships and ill-usage, of malicious ushers, and tyrannical schoolfellows—is accused of theft—runs away—herds with gipsies and menagerie conductors (under the guidance of the latter playing the respectable part of a monkey)—and finally, after having been dragged perforce through one coarse scene of misery and endurance after another, gains a home and friend in a gruff old city merchant—is patronized by ladies fair and ladies blue at the West End, amongst whom at last he discovers the secret of his parentage. This story, which, it must be owned, is rather an unlikely one, the author has conducted with some spirit, and introduced here and there the glimpse of a character; Fignat, for instance, the merchant aforesaid, and his daughter, who gives her hand with a plum in it to the hero, when the fated time comes to end his wanderings—are not badly sketched: it is almost needless, however, to say, that as a work of art 'The Married Unmarried' could not abide any severe criticism.

*Glennolly*, 3 vols.—The writer of this work might have produced a better. The story is all hurry and bustle, and crossing and confusion, until just at some critical time when it ought to move forward, and then the writer stops, as it were, to take breath, and the pause is filled up with speculation and digression. The style is easy, fluent, and pleasant enough.

*Practical Life Tables*, by Alexander M'Kean.—A simple statement of the results which Mr. M'Kean has packed into one sheet (on canvas) will not only describe the immensity of the labour, but excite some curiosity to know how it is done, among those who have had occasion to use tables of life annuities. In a square of about two feet three inches, and in numerals of about eighteen to the inch, the following results are exhibited:—1. The tables of mortality known as the Northampton, Carlisle, and Government (male and female), with the values of annuities on single lives for each table, at three, four, five, and six per cent. 2. The value of annuities on every combination of joint lives whatsoever, between the ages of fourteen and seventy-two, at the four rates of interest just specified, for the Carlisle and Northampton tables. This item, which is the great bulk of the work, contains about fourteen thousand distinct entries of four or five figures, of which Mr. Milne's and Mr. Morgan's works together form little more than one-fifth part. 3. The value of annuities, &c. certain, up to sixty years, at the rates above mentioned. Those who know the trouble of interpolating between the values given in the works alluded to, will feel it a great relief to be in possession of such a compendious library. The colouring of the chart makes the act of reference at least as easy as the books; the manner in which it is folded renders it accessible in every part; and the whole contains, in a pocket form, more than can be found in any work hitherto published. The first and third items run round the edges, while the second consists of two tables of double entry, disposed in the two triangles of the interior, and separated by a diagonal line of ages. The labour of this undertaking must have been very great, and the selection is judicious. The Carlisle and Northampton tables sufficiently well represent the highest and lowest classes of human life, and the mean between the two (which would very nearly represent M. Quetelet's Belgian tables) is perhaps no bad starting point for the whole of England. We cannot but express our sincere hope that the author will suffer no loss; this is an original as well as a

laborious undertaking, and a large class of calculators will owe Mr. M'Kean time as well as freedom from error.

*Analysis of Railways*, by F. Whishaw, C.E.—This work will, we fear, hardly prove so generally interesting, as the author must have supposed it would, when he undertook the laborious task of compiling it. For those who are gambling in railway speculations, more detailed information will be requisite, as well as some account of the probable extent of traffic; whilst to those who are looking on, the book will prove but "an equivocal companion." Here, however, is an extract which may prove of general interest, and from which some opinion of the statistical character of the work may be formed.

"The number of proposed Railways, including Divisions, Extensions, and Branches, in England and Wales, for which plans have been lodged in the Private Bill Office in the present Session, is seventy-five, of which only forty-eight are under the consideration of Parliament; these amount in length to twelve hundred and thirty-three miles, and are estimated at the sum of Nineteen Millions Three Hundred and Fifty-two Thousands Seven Hundred and Twenty-six Pounds, or Fifteen Thousand Six Hundred and Ninety-five Pounds per mile. The whole length of tunnelling is twenty-five miles; and the number of bridges, exclusive of viaducts and culverts, two thousand eight hundred and twenty-five, or nearly two and a third per mile. The weight of iron required for the rails, is one hundred and ninety-three thousand five hundred tons; and of stone for the blocks, two millions six hundred and seventy thousand tons. The area of land required to be taken is upwards of fifteen thousand acres; and of felt for the chairs, one hundred and thirty acres. These Railways, if carried into execution, would employ at least five thousand men and fifteen hundred horses for three years, for the earthworks alone."

"The proposed Railways, in England and Wales, abandoned in the present Session, are twenty-seven in number, amounting in length to seven hundred and ninety-four miles; the length of tunnelling is about eight and three-quarter miles; and the number of bridges one thousand five hundred and ninety-five, or about two per mile."

*Evils of the Factory System*, by Charles Wing.—Mr. Wing's motives for publishing, as stated in his preface, are the same which "influenced the late Mr. Sadler," and "now actuate Lord Ashley and the band of philanthropists who support the same principles with regard to the factory question." According to the same preface, the difficulties which the band of philanthropists "have to overcome are great; hostile interests have set themselves in array against justice; the voice of humanity has been drowned amidst the clamours of political economists." Now Mr. Wing, we have no doubt, is a very worthy man, but mark the modesty of his assumptions: those who agree with him are a noble band of philanthropists, and those who differ from him set themselves against justice; argument too is all on one side, and clamour on the other. This much being premised, we may add that Mr. Wing is a sufficiently able advocate, and that his book contains a vast mass of facts and documents principally selected from the evidence given before committees of the House of Commons.

*Travels in Crete*. By Robert Pashley, Esq. 2 vols. Murray.

In our review of Captain Scott's 'Egypt and Candia,' we examined cursorily the political and commercial importance of Crete; we shall now direct our attention to the social state of this interesting island, and the most important monuments of its ancient glory. Its recent history may be told in a few words. Ever since the island was wrested from the Venetians, its government was intrusted to Cretan renegades, who embraced Mohammedanism as a means of gratifying their depraved passions; they formed

: This sum is exclusive of four of the proposed Brighton lines, one of the Southern lines from Manchester, one of the Birkenhead and Chester lines, the Great Western, Southampton, North Midland, and Eastern Counties Divisions; and also the line from Gillingham to Exeter.

a species of Egypt, and permit the sufferings of Crete were maintained by these brave assistance and Moha the walls Ali sent a Christians Cretan Mu the cruelty ascendant of its power Christians country, a hammedar Powers de united to t ment of M little, bette he oppress polies, de efforts to and perpe sacre of a state.

The au related by accounts o Turks and more than but there i because it of Cresph Grotto of vanced to number of this cave a

"Khusei fugitives to messenger to force the last twenty killed by al the Bey se a message, give up the ill-treatment cast out fr Mohammed a stone, at His troops thus the o could pass The follow a small op during the labour was lowing nig the entranc At length breathe an chaff, spiri combustibl they filled materials, I had before work than immediate of the ent started Ch filled the w not time t inner recee the paren embrace a from the e many mon time to esc which the



a species of militia, like the Mameluke Beys of Egypt, and made it a point of honour not to permit their comrades to be brought to justice. The sufferings of the Christian population in Crete were greater than in any part of the Turkish Empire; the hardy Sfakians alone maintained their independence in their native fastnesses, and when the revolution commenced, these brave mountaineers, descending to the assistance of their brethren, compelled the Turks and Mohammedans to confine themselves within the walls of the fortified towns. Mohammed Ali sent an overwhelming force into Crete; the Christians were forced to submit, and the Cretan Mussulmans used their triumph with all the cruelty that ever marks the victory of an ascendant faction alarmed for the permanence of its power. After the battle of Navarino, the Christians again took up arms, swept the open country, and would soon have driven the Mohammedans from their shores, had not the Allied Powers decided that Crete should be definitively united to the viceroyalty of Egypt. The government of Mohammed Ali is a little, and only a little, better than that of the Sultan; as in Egypt he oppresses commerce by imposts and monopolies, destroys agriculture by his incessant efforts to render himself sole lord of the soil, and perpetuates discontent by the ruthless massacre of all who dare to murmur or remonstrate.

The anecdotes of the revolutionary war, related by Mr. Pashley, are too similar to the accounts of the retaliatory horrors practised by Turks and Greeks, with which we have been more than satiated, for us to dwell upon them; but there is one which we will venture to quote, because it is connected with the beautiful Cave of Cresphygeton, the rival of the celebrated Grotto of Antiparos. When Khusein Bey advanced to Melidhoni, the inhabitants, to the number of about three hundred souls, retired to this cave as to an impregnable fortress:—

"Khusein-bey in vain summoned the Christian fugitives to come out of their lurking-place; his messenger was fired on, and fell. He then attempted to force the entrance of the cave: and, in doing so, lost twenty-four of his brave Arnauts, who were killed by shots from the Christians within. On this the Bey sent a Greek woman into the cavern, with a message, that 'if they would all come forth, and give up their arms, they should not meet with any ill-treatment.' The woman was shot, and her body cast out from the mouth of the grotto. When the Mohammedan general saw this, he himself took up a stone, and threw it into the cavern's entrance. His troops imitated the example he set them, and thus the only aperture through which light and air could pass to the Christians was entirely filled up. The following morning the Mohammedans saw that a small opening had been produced in their work, during the night. They again filled it up, and their labour was again undone by the Christians the following night. This attempt of the Turks to close the entrance of the cave was repeated twice more. At length they saw that the Christians could still breathe and live: they therefore collected wood, oil, chaff, spirit, sulphur, refuse olives, and all other combustibles on which they could lay their hands: they filled up the mouth of the cavern with these materials, instead of the stones and earth which they had before used; and had no sooner completed their work than they set it on fire. Volumes of smoke immediately rolled along under the spacious vault of the entrance cavern, in which many of the ill-starred Christians were assembled: the dense vapour filled the whole apartment so rapidly that many had not time to escape through devious passages to the inner recesses of the cave. The husband and wife, the parent and child, could only take one last embrace and die. The smoke now forced its way from the entrance apartment into that within. Here many more fell, but the greater number had still time to escape, through narrow passages, in some of which they must have crept on their hands and

knees, into little side chambers, and to the more distant recesses of the cavern. Doubtless, they hoped thus to escape the fate which had overtaken their less active companions. Alas! the passages through which they rushed, suffered the destroying vapour to follow them; and thus, at last, the groups of fugitives who had taken refuge in the inmost depths of the cave, died as their companions had done; and, in a few minutes after their funeral pile was first lighted, all these unhappy Christians had perished. By submission they might, undoubtedly, have avoided this fate, but they were all convinced, that if they once surrendered to their angry and ferocious foes, the men among them would be massacred, and the women and children reduced to slavery; so that one wonders not that they should have refused to listen to the offers which were made them."

The Cretan war songs are celebrated throughout Greece; some of them have been translated by Mr. Pashley with great fidelity; they are simple narratives, like our own old ballads, and have no pretensions to poetic beauty. We quote part of one, describing an unsuccessful attempt on the castle of Grabúsa:—

Three warriors each his wand'ring steps  
O'er hapless Crete now wends,  
If cousins, or e'en brothers, they  
Had not been firmer friends.

As if one mother all had borne,  
And nourished at her breast,  
Thus 'twas that each his warmest love  
Did on the others rest.

One was yeloped Xepapas,  
Another Búzo-Mark,  
The third was Captain Panaghís,  
Once cast in dungeon dark.

They all decreed, Grabúsa's rock  
That from the foe they'd wrest;  
Nor, in Grabúsa, would permit  
One Mussulman to rest.

And Búzo-Márko 'twas, who first  
Did on the rampart stand,  
And seven soldiers there did he  
Cut down with his good brand.

"Leap up, leap up, my warriors bold,  
"And on the Turks with speed  
"We'll rush, for hence I don't retreat  
"If death be not my need."

First Búzo-Márko on the ground  
Was stretched by deadly blow;  
And soon, by numbers overcome,  
The Captains all lay low.

Their love songs have more of an oriental colouring, and in some passages remind us of the odes in the romance of Antar. The following effusion is not discreditable to the modern Grecian muse:—

O thou, my much-beloved maid,  
Branch of a lofty tree,  
With thee what mind can converse hold?  
Who can dispute with thee?

Bear witness, brightly shining Moon,  
And Hághio Kostandi!  
Beauties like thine 'neath the expanse  
Of Heaven I ne'er did see.

I heard thy beauty's far-spread fame,  
And came its truth to prove;  
And now my soul no more can bear  
To flee from thee, my love.

The Sun, when rising in the east,  
Lucks in thy bosom fair,  
And all his setting glories hide  
Beneath thy yellow hair.

Beauties like thine I never saw  
Here at Kálcia's balls,  
Nor throughout Mylopótamo,  
Nor within Kástro's walls,  
Thou likest art unto a Queen,  
The world is ruled by thee;  
Each heart thou wiltst thou dost enslave,  
And each thou wiltst dost free.

Several striking incidents, descriptive of the depopulation caused by the late war, are recorded; one will be sufficient to show the sanguinary nature of the struggle:—

"We arrived soon after sunset in the little village of Vlithías, the only male inhabitant of which is a young Mohammedan, in whose house we took up our abode. The rest are all widows. In many places in Crete the number of widows is large: and in one village of Lassithi they actually form the entire population, as is so nearly the case here."

There is less difference between the Moham-

medan and Christian natives of Crete, than we should have been led to expect from their virulent animosities. Both drink wine in extravagant quantities; and both retain much of the superstitious belief in the demons of mountains, woods, and waters, which has come down from their pagan ancestors. Mr. Pashley records many examples of these traditional fears; he also notices some superstitions, which, though common in the Levant, have not been recorded by former travellers.

"Some days ago, while I was washing, I asked Captain Maniás to reach me a piece of soap, which was lying near him. He placed it at some distance from me, and told me that no motive could ever induce him to put it directly into my hands. The superstition, that when one person so gives soap to another, it will wash away their friendship, is generally diffused in Greece and Turkey.

"I could not but notice Maniás's politeness, when, addressing our Mohammedan host at Vlithías, he spoke of 'those animals which have bristles on their backs,' and carefully avoided even the name of the unclean pig. In a similar manner a Greek will apologise to any one before whom he may mention a Jew."

Some of the Cretan customs are derived from the Jews,—especially that of sacrificing the Paschal Lamb.

"We are reminded of the Jewish paschal lamb, both by the Lampré or Easter-Sunday of the Greeks, and by the Kurbán-bairám or Feast of Sacrifice of the Mohammedans. Every true believer, whose means enable him to incur such an expense, is expected to kill a sheep on that occasion: its flesh, however, is not consumed in merry-making, but is, I am told, ordinarily distributed among the poor. As I noticed this morning the tethered lambs, on passing the cottages of Christians, so, for a few days before the Kurbán-bairám, I saw fine fat sheep tied up in half the shops of the bazar of Khandiá."

We have fewer statistical details of the industry and produce of Crete than we desire; but from the account given of the plain of Apokóróna, it seems probable that under a good government Crete might soon attain a high degree of prosperity. It must, however, be observed, that the want of good roads, and the neglected state of the harbours, must long impede the growth of commerce.

"The corn-land in the plain of Apokóróna usually gives a return of from fifteen to twenty fold the quantity of seed. I am assured that, not long ago, three measures of barley produced a crop of nearly ninety measures. The olive-trees of Apokóróna are generally small: they are very unlike the magnificent trees of Sélino: it is said, that for a thousand mistata no less than four thousand roots are here required. A wealthy Turk, who was sent into exile last winter, after the affair of Murniás, in which the government thought proper to suppose him implicated, possesses about sixteen thousand roots of olives, and their mean produce is not much above three thousand mistata. The villagers put the weekly consumption of oil, in each family, at four okes and a half. Each olive-tree sells here for from fifteen to twenty piastres: some may fetch thirty: a tree here and there, if unusually large and fruitful, may occasionally sell for more than double the latter sum; but of this last class there are few in Apokóróna. If the arable field in which the olives stand is good, it will also be worth a hundred piastres the measure. A calculation of the return made for the investment of capital at these prices, will give about thirty or even thirty-five per cent, as its annual amount: and this is not more than is really obtained. About three years' purchase is the ordinary price of land: I have met with cases where it has been obtained for a good deal less. The most ample security can be had for money, on mortgage of land and property far exceeding in value the sum borrowed: and, for a loan thus obtained, the rate of interest is sometimes as low as fifteen per cent.; in the case of a monastery it may be even less: but, for a private individual, it commonly amounts to nearer thirty. This is all quite natural; for the country is very fertile, and money, wherever it is applied to cultivate

the soil and develop its dormant powers, produces so large a return, that the borrower can well afford to pay twenty and even thirty per cent. for the use of it."

Here is one article of Cretan luxury and export:—

"Maniás and his gossip sit down this evening to a dish of snails, a luxury in which the Greek is allowed to indulge even on his most rigorous fasts. The snails of Crete are highly prized in the Levant; and they are one of the regular exports of the island. The Christian populations of Constantinople, Smyrna, and Alexandria all enjoy this delicacy during the fasts of the Oriental church."

In no part of the Levant is the belief in the Vampire, or, as they call it, the Katakhanás, so common as in Crete. One story was so strongly attested, that Mr. Pashley took it down in the original words, and has added a literal version, too curious to be omitted.

"Once on a time the village of Kalikráti, in the district of Sfakiá, was haunted by a Katakhanás, and people did not know what man he was or from what part. This Katakhanás destroyed both children and many full-grown men; and desolated both that village and many others. They had buried him at the church of Saint George at Kalikráti, and in those times he was a man of note, and they had built an arch over his grave. Now a certain shepherd, his mutual Synteknos (gossip), was tending his sheep and goats near the church, and, on being caught by a shower, he went to the sepulchre, that he might be shaded from the rain. Afterwards he determined to sleep, and to pass the night there, and, after taking off his arms, he placed them by the stone which served him as his pillow, crosswise. And people might say, that it is on this account that the Katakhanás was not permitted to leave his tomb. During the night, then, as he wished to go out again, that he might destroy men, he said to the shepherd: 'Gossip, get up hence, for I have some business that requires me to come out.' The shepherd answered him not, either the first time, or the second, or the third; for thus he knew that the man had become a Katakhanás, and that it was he who had done all those evil deeds. On this account he said to him, on the fourth time of his speaking, 'I shall not get up hence, gossip, for I fear that you are no better than you should be, and may do me some mischief: but, if I must get up, swear to me by your winding-sheet, that you will not hurt me, and on this I will get up.' And he did not pronounce the proposed words, but said other things: nevertheless, when the shepherd did not suffer him to get up, he swore to him as he wished. On this he got up, and, taking his arms, removed them away from the monument, and the Katakhanás came forth, and, after greeting the shepherd, said to him, 'Gossip, you must not go away, but sit down here; for I have some business which I must go after; but I shall return within the hour, for I have something to say to you.' So the shepherd waited for him.

"And the Katakhanás went a distance of about ten miles, where there was a couple recently married, and he destroyed them. On his return, his gossip saw that he was carrying some liver, his hands being moistened with blood: and, as he carried it, he blew into it, just as the butcher does, to increase the size of the liver. And he shewed his gossip that it was cooked, as if it had been done on the fire. After this he said, 'Let us sit down, gossip, that we may eat.' And the shepherd pretended to eat it, but only swallowed dry bread, and kept dropping the liver into his bosom. Therefore, when the hour for their separation arrived, the Katakhanás said to the shepherd, 'Gossip, this which you have seen, you must not mention, for, if you do, my twenty nails will be fixed in your children and myself.' Yet the shepherd lost no time, but gave information to priests, and others, and they went to the tomb, and there they found the Katakhanás, just as he had been buried. And all people became satisfied that it was he who had done all the evil deeds. On this account they collected a great deal of wood, and they cast him on it, and burnt him. His gossip was not present, but, when the Katakhanás was already half consumed, he too came forward in order that he might enjoy the ceremony. And the Katakhanás

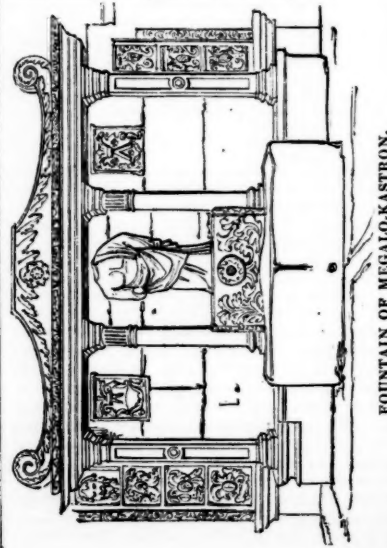
cast, as it were, a single spout of blood, and it fell on his foot, which wasted away, as if it had been roasted on a fire. On this account they sifted even the ashes, and found the little finger-nail of the Katakhanás unburnt, and burnt it too.

"This supposed Vampire's habit of feeding on the human liver, may perhaps account for an exclamation of a Cretan mother, recorded in the travels of Tavernier: 'I will sooner eat the liver of my child.'"

The Sfakians engaged more of our traveller's attention than any other portion of the Cretan population, and he was greatly struck with the similarity between their usages and those of the Scottish highlanders two centuries ago. But the customs of mountaineers are pretty much alike in every quarter of the globe. The most remarkable trait of the Sfakians is the stern severity with which they punish a breach of the marriage vow: no mercy is shown to a faithless wife; her nearest relations are at once her accusers, her judges, and her executioners.

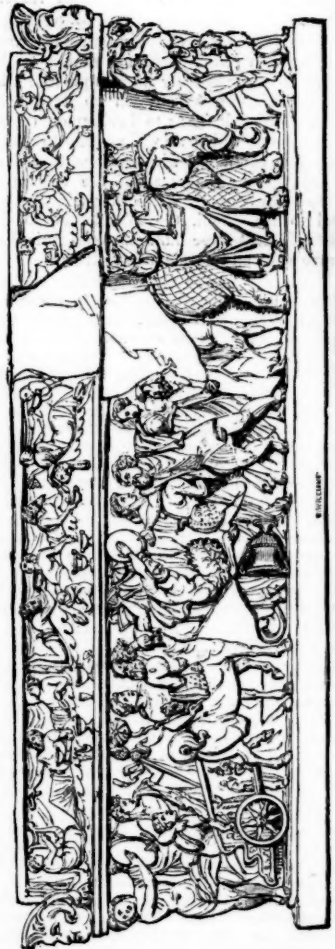
"Thirty-five years ago a young wife, the cousin of Manúsos, who was present at the recital, as he was also at the events described, was suspected of having broken her marriage-vow. The charge was not proved, but the suspicion became general, and her father at once consented to leave it to her near relations to decide as they thought best respecting her. Their decision was soon taken, and all those of them whose dwellings were at Askýfo went thence to Anópolis, where their destined victim lived, in order that they might assist in executing the sentence pronounced against her, and of which she was as yet totally ignorant. They went, to the number of between thirty and forty, to her home, seized her, and, after tying her to a tree, made her person the mark at which all their muskets were pointed and discharged. It happened that though more than thirty balls lodged in her body, the next moment her bosom heaved, and she still breathed. One of her executioners immediately drew his pistol from his girdle, placed it close to her breast, and fired. After this she breathed no more."

Mr. Pashley has devoted the greater portion of his volumes to antiquarian researches; the remains of ancient art in Crete are more remarkable for their massiveness than their beauty; but there are a few worthy of the best days of Grecian sculpture; and most of these are depicted in the lithographs and wood-engravings with which these volumes are profusely illustrated, specimens of which, owing to the kindness of Mr. Pashley, we are enabled to introduce in our columns. The fountain of Megalo-Kastron, a representation of which we subjoin, would have been worthy of a place in the Acropolis:—



FOUNTAIN OF MEGALO-KASTRON.

Still more interesting is the sarcophagus found at Arvi, the pieces of which, on their arrival in England, were joined under the direction of Sir Francis Chantrey, and afterwards presented by Sir Pulteney Malcolm to the University of Cambridge. The subject belongs to the Dionysiac festivals, which are not of unfrequent occurrence on monuments; but in this specimen there are some peculiarities worthy of notice. The naked bacchante on the left is playing on a tympanum—an instrument more usual in the worship of Rhea than of Bacchus. Though the presence of lions, tigers, and panthers may be accounted for by the general belief that these animals are fond of wine, the elephant clearly identifies the representation with the Indian expedition of the god. The figure of the deity is more decidedly androgynous than usual; the features are feminine, and there is more than the tenderness of friendship in the embrace which Bacchus gives to Ampelos. The Centaurs, Silenus, Pan, and the Satyrs, scarcely need to be described; but we may direct attention to the similarity between the gambols of the riotous companions of Bacchus, and the antics of the "tricky spirits" in the legends of the Middle Ages. Mention was made of this monument in the *Athenæum*, No. 386.



FRONT VIEW OF THE CRETAN SARCOPHAGUS.

One end of the sarcophagus exhibits Pan, tormented by two mischievous Cupids, who are amusing themselves at his expense. The jo-

cund chara agree badly the worshipper and the B his nymph Houris.

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Mr. Pa writer; w travels, and prevented and giving it was unc

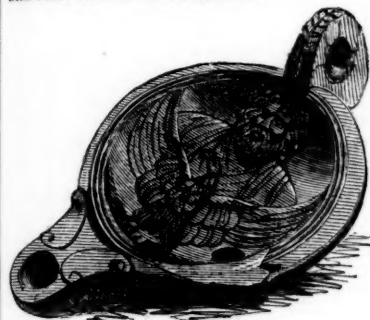
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cund character of the Bacchic festivals seems to agree badly with the solemnity of the tomb: but the worshippers of the jovial god probably entertained Mohammedan notions of a future state; and the Bacchanal looked for the company of his nymphs as the Mussulman does for his Houris.



In minor works of art the Cretans obtained some celebrity. From the subjoined wood-cut it will be seen that their lamps might compete with those found at Herculaneum.



Mr. Pashley is both a learned and a pleasing writer; we have been much gratified by his travels, and only regret that circumstances have prevented him from fulfilling his original design, and giving us a History of Crete, especially while it was under the dominion of Venice.

*List of New Books.*—Edinburgh Cabinet Library, Vol. XLII. (Life of King Henry VIII., by P. F. Tytler, 1 vol.) 18mo. 5s. cl.—Turner's Sacred History of the World, Vol. III., 8vo. 14s. bds.—Melville's Sermons at Cambridge, in February, 1837, 8vo. 5s. bds.—The Chace, the Turf, and the Road, by Nimrod, 8vo. 16s. cl.—Latham's Harmonia Paulina, 8vo. 12s. bds.—Guizot's History of the Civilization of Europe, translated from the French, 8vo. 12s. bds.—Sermons by the Rev. Thomas Scott, of Gawcots, edited by the Rev. S. King, 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl.—Christian Trials, by the Author of the 'Bread of Deceit,' 18mo. 2s. 6d. hf-bd.—Winkler's French Cathedrals, roy. 4to. 30s. plain, 50s. proofs, 6s.—Whishaw's Analysis of Railways, 8vo. 13s. 6d. bds.—Britain's Glory in the Evangelization of her Seamen, by Thomas Timpon, 18mo. 3s. cl.—History of Protestant Nonconformity in Great Britain, 12mo. 3s. 6d. cl.—Stovel's (Rev. C.) Pastoral Appeals on Conversion, 18mo. 2s. 6d. cl.—Gray's Country Solicitor's Practice in Chancery, 18mo. 10s. cl.—Ingia's Spain, 2nd edit. with an Account of the Proceedings in Spain to the Present Time, 2 vols. post 8vo. 21s. cl.—Mayo's Philosophy of Living, post 8vo. 1s. 6d. cl.—Walton's Angler, 2 vols. 32mo. (Tilt's Classics) 1s. cl.—Sinclair's Modern Society, 2nd edit. cr. 8vo. 7s. cl.—Thoughts in Times Past tested by Subsequent Events, by the Duke of Newcastle, 12mo. 5s. cl.—Booth's English Grammar, 12mo. 6s. bds.—Bowles's Little Villager's Verse Book, 2nd series, 18mo. with Frontispiece, 1s. gilt, swd.—Daniell's Practice in the High Court of Chancery, Vol. I. 8vo. 30s. bds.—Colles on the Venereal Disease, 8vo. 9s. cl.—Ellis's Latin Exercises, 15th edit. 12mo. 3s. 6d. bd.—Wilcoke's Arithmetic, 5th edit. 12mo. 5s. cl.—Observations on the Surgical Pathology of the Larynx and Trachea, by W. H. Porter, new edit. 8vo. 8s.

*Meteorological Observations made at the Apartments of the Royal Society, Somerset House, for 37 successive hours, commencing 6 A.M. of the 21st of March 1837, and ending 6 P.M. of the following day.*

(Greenwich mean time.)

By Mr. J. D. ROBERTON, Assistant Secretary, Royal Society.

Hours of Observation.	Barom. Flint Glass.	Barom. Crown Glass.	Atmos. Ther.	Extern. Ther.	Old Standard Barom.	Atmos. Ther.	Difference of Wet & Dry Bulb Ther.	Dew Point.	Rain in Inches.	Wind.	REMARKS.
6, A.M.	29.890	29.884	34.5	26.4	29.893	33.8	01.2	24		N	Fine—lt. clouds & wind. Sharp frost.
7, ..	29.892	29.882	34.8	27.4	29.891	34.0	01.1	25		NNE	Cloudy—lt. brisk wind. Ditto.
8, ..	29.879	29.871	35.7	29.3	29.885	34.9	00.0	28		W	Ditto ditto ditto.
9, ..	29.861	29.853	36.0	30.8	29.867	35.3	00.1	25		WNW	Overcast ditto ditto.
10, ..	29.851	29.841	36.3	31.3	29.857	35.9	00.2	29		W	Overcast—snow—lt. brisk wind. Do.
11, ..	29.837	29.827	36.2	30.7	29.843	36.2	01.2	28		N	Ditto ditto ditto.
12, ..	29.821	29.809	35.7	31.4	29.827	36.8	00.5	28		W	Ditto ditto ditto.
1, P.M.	29.794	29.786	36.9	32.6	29.808	37.3	00.2	28		N	Fine—light clouds and wind.
2, ..	29.772	29.766	37.1	33.2	29.786	37.4	00.1	28		N	Ditto ditto ditto.
3, ..	29.776	29.760	37.2	34.7	29.779	37.6	01.7	29		NNW	Ditto ditto ditto.
4, ..	29.754	29.744	37.2	34.3	29.766	37.6	03.8	29		NW	Ditto ditto ditto.
5, ..	29.758	29.750	37.0	31.8	29.772	37.4	01.2	27		E	Ditto ditto ditto.
6, ..	29.764	29.758	36.8	31.4	29.778	36.8	01.1	26		E	Cloudy—light brisk wind.
7, ..	29.762	29.756	36.5	30.6	29.768	36.3	00.7	28		ESE	Ditto ditto.
8, ..	29.763	29.757	36.2	30.2	29.766	36.2	00.6	29			Overcast—light wind.
9, ..	29.757	29.749	36.0	30.4	29.762	35.6	00.6	29			Ditto ditto.
10, ..	29.751	29.743	36.2	30.7	29.752	35.5	00.5	25			Ditto ditto.
11, ..	29.743	29.737	36.4	30.6	29.744	35.7	00.4	27			Ditto ditto.
12, ..	29.732	29.726	36.6	30.6	29.734	35.8	00.2	28			Ditto—light snow—air frosty.
1, A.M.	29.726	29.720	36.7	30.5	29.730	36.0	00.3	27			Overcast.
2, ..	29.716	29.708	36.5	30.3	29.722	36.2	00.3	28			Ditto.
3, ..	29.711	29.703	36.3	30.2	29.713	35.5	00.2	27			Ditto—light snow and wind.
4, ..	29.713	29.707	36.2	29.8	29.720	35.5	00.0	26			Ditto ditto.
5, ..	29.713	29.703	35.9	30.0	29.713	35.4	00.0	26			Ditto ditto.
6, ..	29.719	29.713	35.8	29.4	29.722	35.2	00.2	25		NW	Cloudy—light wind.
7, ..	29.736	29.730	35.4	29.4	29.738	35.2	00.0	25		E	Overcast—light wind.
8, ..	29.750	29.744	35.4	29.5	29.750	35.2	00.0	25		E	Ditto ditto.
9, ..	29.765	29.755	35.8	31.0	29.774	35.4	00.0	24	102*	E	Ditto ditto.
10, ..	29.774	29.766	37.5	34.6	29.782	36.5	03.8	28	* Melted snow	E	Cloudy—light wind.
11, ..	29.775	29.769	38.2	36.2	29.786	37.6	04.9	28		S	Ditto ditto.
12, ..	29.780	29.770	38.2	35.7	29.792	38.0	03.9	28		ESE	Fine—broken clouds—light wind.
1, P.M.	29.774	29.766	38.0	35.7	29.786	38.3	02.2	23		ESE	Cloudy—slight thaw.
2, ..	29.772	29.766	37.8	35.2	29.784	38.0	00.2	22		ESE	Overcast—light brisk wind.
3, ..	29.774	29.768	37.7	34.7	29.788	37.8	00.3	25		ESE	Ditto ditto.
4, ..	29.780	29.772	37.6	34.6	29.792	37.7	00.1	22		ESE	Ditto ditto.
5, ..	29.796	29.778	37.2	33.3	29.812	37.6	00.4	24		ESE	Ditto ditto.
6, ..	29.812	29.804	37.2	32.5	29.824	37.2	00.2	26		ESE	Ditto ditto.*
	29.777	29.769	36.6	31.6	29.784	36.3	00.9	26	102		

\* In the evening snow, with sharp frost; as also the day previous to the observations being commenced.

The observations of the Barometre (Flint and Crown Glass) are severally corrected for Temperature, as also for Capillarity.

The water in the cistern attached to the Wet and Dry Bulb Thermometer, was frozen, during nearly the whole of the observations.

#### ORIGINAL LETTER OF NOLLEKENS.

WE have permission to insert the following letter, which is an exact copy of the original, and for the authenticity of which we can pledge our word. It was written in the year 1770, by the celebrated sculptor Nollekens, while he was a student at Rome, and addressed to his friend, Mr. Banks, in London. It is not only amusing thus to fathom the depth of Nollekens's orthography, &c. when a young man, but interesting and instructive to see how real genius will work its way, in spite of the obstacles opposed to it by poverty and want of education, and the thousand ills in their train.

To

Mr. Thomas Banks Sculptor

at Mr. Haywards in Piccadilly

or Elsewhere

London.

My worthy friend B—

Rome.

I take this opportunity of sending you these few lines by a Friend of mine Going to England. You must Excuse the Time it will be on the road which I fear will be a long while, hope it will find you your Mother & Brothers & all Friends in Good health. as I am at present but have bin for some time much out of Order with the Ague & fever I believe on account of the very Bad wether, which as lasted here a long while, and has bin much the Complaint a bout Rome. don't doubt but you have heard of my Saif ariving this side of the Alps a long time sience in the first I was at Paris Saw every thing in its Greatist Luster Lions. Turinne. Millan. Padwa. Venise. Bologna. florence. where at the Grand duke of Tuscanny's Gallery a mongue many Other most seprising Curiositis I saw the Gretion Venia in perfect Blossom with several Others to long here to mention—and last at the spot where Romulus & Remus took Suck; of the She-Wolf. and afterwards Gave it the Naime it Bears to this Day. where

there is Every thing an artist can wish for, to study from—the Laocön the Torso that Michel Angello so much admired. the Apolo. the works in the Vaticano of the Divine Raphael, the Hercules at the farnaise St Peters & I promis you Several Other wery Wonderful fine things to See. I hope you have met with Scusecess for your Bassorelivo, & beg you will let me know how the rest of the Prize fighters gese on. who gites the most honour amongue them who as got the prize this Year for the figure & who as made the Great Shoe at the Exhibition. beg my Compliments to my friend Mr — hope he & all his family is well & beg when you write to have a line or two from him. and let it be Soon the Expensis is but Small. I expect within a few Month to have the Like Ocation of writing to you. by Mr — who is Going to England to try his fortune which I believe he will Soon make. beg my Compliments to my O friend Signore — & to all others who are So kind to Ask after me. in the mean Time, Subscribe my Self

Yours with Sincerity

J. Nollekens

PS. There is F— H— at Florence who is knocking the Marbil a bout, like Fevry. & belive he as Got more work to do than any One Sculptor in England. There is in Rome Some few Panters who are Like to make a wery Great Shoe in a few Years, in England in the History way—

#### OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP ON LITERATURE AND ART.

It would seem this year, as if we were to be made April fools of by snow and frost—rather than by any peculiarly promising novelty, either in literature or art. Even rumours, just now, seem to share the fate of the tunes in Munchausen's horn; the thaw, we hope, when it comes, will give us a full

blast to compensate for the present silence, of which doubtless, our readers, like ourselves are heartily weary. Our hearings for the past seven days do not amount to much; of new books promised, the most important seems to be Prof. Babbage's announced 'Treatise on Natural Theology': many of those works long advertised will, however, appear early in April. From the Theatres nothing has reached us, save a very far-off whisper of a tragedy, by the Author of 'Paracelsus,' its subject being taken from English history. Of the movements of our literary magnates, we know little, save that Mr. Southey is said, during a recent tour in Devonshire, to have collected materials for a supplementary volume to his Life of Cowper; and that Mr. Wordsworth is on the wing, if he have not already taken flight, for Italy. We can desire nothing better than a series of sonnet-pictures of that inexhaustible land of beauty, from his hands. From the world of music, we have only the general report, that London is this spring to be fuller of foreign artists than ever, and that Beethoven's magnificent Choral Symphony is to be performed at the fourth Philharmonic Concert. This paragraph, in the way of news, is but "lenten fare" for our readers, it must be confessed; we hope that the next week's magazines will enable us to make them a liberal Easter offering.

We have heard that Mr. Carlyle is about to deliver a course of lectures on German Literature, at Willis's Rooms, to commence in May. This is an announcement of promise, few who have come before the public in a similar capacity having been more thoroughly imbued with the spirit of their subject than this gentleman.

We must notice the death of Mr. Fawcett, the comedian, as having taken place at Kintock, in Hampshire, on Sunday week. Our contemporaries remind us that he made his *début* at Margate, in 1784: it was not till after some years of indifferent success that he rose to the enviable position of a London favourite: his best characters were those written by Colman expressly for him. Fawcett took leave of the stage on the 20th of May, 1830. We wish we could add, that he retired into private life with the competence he so well deserved; his last years were years of poverty.

Dr. Apjohn, who has long been known to the scientific world as a lecturer and experimentalist of the highest order, we are glad to hear, is a candidate for the vacant Professorship in the London University College. His loss will be severely felt in Dublin, where his lectures contributed not a little to excite the attention which has been recently paid to experimental science in the Irish metropolis. We know not who are the rival candidates, but we can have little doubt of Dr. Apjohn's success.

We learn from Bombay, that the 'George Nameh,' an historical poem, by the late Moollah Fyroz Bin Caos, is about to be published under the patronage of the local government. The subject is the history of India, from its discovery by the Portuguese, to the capture of Poona by the English in 1817. Moollah Fyroz was encouraged to undertake this task, by Mr. Duncan, Sir John Malcolm, and Mr. Elphinstone, who highly estimated his knowledge of the Persian language and literature; he has devoted twenty-five years of his life to its completion. A specimen sheet has been sent to us, and it is highly creditable to the Bombay press.

It seems that the London University are to hold their sittings at Somerset House, in the apartments heretofore appropriated to the Royal Academy. They have already appointed a Committee to arrange the mode of proceeding in examinations for granting degrees.

#### BRITISH INSTITUTION, PALL MALL.

The Gallery for the Exhibition and Sale of the Works of BRITISH ARTISTS, is Open daily from 10 in the Morning until 5 in the Evening.—Admission, 1s.; Catalogue, 1s.

WILLIAM BARNARD, Keeper.

#### SOCIETY OF BRITISH ARTISTS.

The EXHIBITION of the SOCIETY of BRITISH ARTISTS, Suffolk-street, Pall Mall East, is NOW OPEN to the Public, from 10 in the Morning till Dark.—Admission, 1s.

T. C. HOFLAND, Secretary.

## SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

### STATISTICAL SOCIETY.

March 20.—G. R. Porter, Esq. Vice President, in the chair. A paper, by the same gentleman, was read, containing an 'Account of the Public Works which were in progress, or recently completed, in France, at the end of 1835.'

Part I. related to Inland Navigation.

In France it has been found necessary to set about repairing the channels of communication of that country, by means of government funds, and under the direction of government officers. By a law passed in June 1833, a special credit, amounting to forty-four millions of francs (1,760,000*l.*), for the completion of canals; of fifteen millions of francs (600,000*l.*) for perfecting high roads; of twelve millions of francs (480,000*l.*) for constructing military roads in the western departments; of two millions and a half of francs (100,000*l.*) for completing the system of lighthouses along the coast of France; and of half a million of francs (20,000*l.*) for prosecuting inquiries concerning rail-roads; together seventy-four millions of francs, or 2,960,000*l.*, were placed at the disposal of the government by the legislative Chambers. The object of the present paper was to give a brief account of the progress which had been made at the end of 1835 towards the completion of the objects contemplated at the passing of this law, full particulars of which are contained in papers presented to the French Chambers last year by the Minister of Commerce.

**Canals.**—More than half the sum voted by the Chambers was made applicable to the formation and completion of canals. The statement of the Minister of Public Works describes 11 lines of canals, besides operations by which 2 rivers have been rendered navigable. These works appear to have been all undertaken at periods anterior to June 1833, and to have had considerable progress made towards their completion at that date; but funds were wanting towards their completion, and these were furnished under the vote of the Chambers. The canals are described under the following names:—1. Canal from the Rhone to the Rhine; 2. of the Somme; 3. of Ardennes; 4. of Burgundy; 5. from Nantes to Brest; 6. of Ile and Rance; 7. of Blavet; 8. from Arles to Boue; 9. of the Nivernais; 10. of Berry; 11. of the Loire. The Rivers of which the navigation has been opened are—1. the Isle; 2. Oise.

The first-named of these canals, intended to connect the basin of the Rhone with the basin of the Rhine, has its commencement on the Saone, near Saint Jean de Losne, and ends near Strasbourg. The whole extent of this line is 203 English miles, including the branch from Mulhausen to Huningue, which is about 16½ miles. The principal line has 160, and the branch 4 locks: there are also 13 sluices. The locks are rendered necessary by a rise of 550 feet on the side of the Saone, and of 658 feet on the side of the Rhine. This canal was opened through its whole extent at the end of 1834. The tolls received in the course of 1835 amounted to 21,900*l.* The work was projected about the middle of last century; that part of it which occurs between Dôle and the Saone was begun in 1784, and completed in 1790. The total cost of the canal, exclusive of the small part opened in 1790, and of the compensation for lands, has amounted to about 1,100,000*l.*

The end proposed by the construction of the canal of the Somme, was the connexion of Paris with the sea. It commences near Saint Limon, and ends at the mouth of the Somme. The length of the canal is about 91½ miles. It was begun in 1770. The tolls collected in 1835 amounted to 9,351*l.* The cost of the canal has been about 446,000*l.*

The Ardennes Canal connects the valleys of the Aisne and the Meuse. It begins at Donchery, on the latter river, and joins the Aisne at Semuy, whence it is continued on one side to Neufchâteau, and on the other side to Vouziers. The entire length is 61 miles. Forty-nine locks are required to overcome a difference of level of 408 feet; 52½ feet on the side towards the Meuse, and 355½ feet towards the Aisne. The total cost of this canal has been 561,280*l.*

The Burgundy Canal is designed to unite the basin of the Seine with that of the Rhone. One end is at La Roche-sur-Yonne, the other end at

Saint Jean de Losne, on the Saone; its entire length is 141 miles. The locks are 191 in number, and overcome a difference of level of 1,535 feet; 612 on the descent towards the Saone, and 923 feet towards the Yonne. The works include a tunnel two miles long. The Burgundy Canal was opened in December 1832, but owing to the want of reservoirs could not be used in the dry season. Notwithstanding this interruption, 2,324 boats passed on the canal to Dijon, 1,388 to Pouilly, and 1,579 to Tonnerre. The tolls amounted in 1831 to 90,000*fr.*; in 1834 to 210,000*fr.*, and in 1835 to 591,840*fr.*—23,673*l.* This canal was begun in 1775. The total cost has been 2,048,446*l.*

The canal from Nantes to Brest was intended principally for the conveyance of materials and stores, during the time of war, to the largest and most important naval arsenal of France. It is composed of three canals, passing successively from the basin of the Loire, of La Vilaine, and of Blavet, to the river Aulne, which joins the harbour of Brest. Its length is 218 miles. The locks, 238 in number, overcome a difference of level amounting altogether to 1,711 feet. The number of boats that passed the lock at Nantes was, in 1834, 3,548, and in 1835, 4,151. The parts of this canal which are finished and in use, extend altogether to 148 miles. The part which traverses the department of the Loire Inferieur is of considerable importance to the trade of the district, but nearer to the coast it is less needed in time of peace, because of the facility of transporting goods and produce coastwise. The traffic on this line has not been subjected to any toll. It is thought more advisable, for the general interest of the country, to encourage by that means an active commerce, than to draw back to the public treasury what would, for some time at least, amount to a very inadequate return for the capital employed. This work was begun about the year 1806. The total cost has been 1,701,889*l.*

The canal of Ile and Rance is designed to open a navigable communication between the Channel and the Ocean, across the peninsula of Bretagne, uniting the ports of Nantes, Brest, and St. Malo. Its length is 50 miles. There are 20 locks on the side of the Vilaine, to overcome an ascent of 129 feet; and 28 locks on the side of the Rance, to overcome an ascent of 193 feet. This canal has been open since 1832, but the reservoirs required for feeding it not being completed, the navigation is frequently stopped. It was begun in 1804, and the total cost has been 542,924*l.*

The Canal of Blavet is only a branch towards the sea of the Nantes and Brest Canal. It begins at Pontivy and ends at Hennebont; its length is 34½ miles. The total rise and fall is 162 feet, and the number of locks 27. Below Hennebont the Blavet is navigable to the sea. This canal was opened in 1825. The cost has been 197,140*l.*

The canal from Arles to Boue is rendered necessary by the shifting sands which make the navigation of the mouths of the Rhone difficult and dangerous. It will render the further benefit of affording an outlet to the superfluous waters of the district; thus making available, for agricultural purposes, lands which would otherwise be useless. This canal extends along the left bank of the Rhone from Arles to the port of Boue, a distance of 27½ miles. Being intended for sea-going vessels, it is 44 feet wide at bottom, and 68 feet at the surface of the water, with a depth of rather more than six feet. The sides are raised three feet above the highest level of the Rhone. It was opened in June 1834, from which time to the end of 1835, more than 2,500 vessels, including passage-boats, passed through it, paying tolls to the amount of more than 2,000*l.* The total cost has been 444,096*l.*

The canal of the Nivernais begins at Auxerre, and ends at Decize. Its whole extent is 103 miles. The difference of level is 746 feet, and the number of locks 117. It is partially in use, and the whole line is expected to be open in 1838. The works have altogether cost 1,000,000*l.*

The canal of Berry consists of three branches, united at one point, near Khimbé. The extent of the whole is about 186 miles; the number of locks 110, and the rise and fall 757 feet. The works are incomplete, and the canal only partially opened.

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The sum expended on this canal up to the end of 1835 was 692,854l.

The canal of the Loire begins at Digoin. The branch which joins it with the canal of the centre, crosses the Loire by an aqueduct bridge, five miles in length. The canal also crosses the river Allier by an aqueduct bridge; and it crosses the Loire, through the bed of the river, above Briare. Its whole extent is 134 miles: there are 45 locks to overcome a difference of level amounting to 317 feet. This canal was undertaken in 1822. The total outlay to the end of 1835 was 941,680l., and it was expected to be finished and opened for use at the end of 1836. Total cost, 941,680l.

**Rivers.**—The course of the river Isle, between Perigueux and Libourne, is 84½ miles. The difference of elevation between these two points is 237 feet, requiring 39 locks. The tonnage that reached the first lock in 1835 amounted to 40,000l. At the end of 1836, the whole extent was expected to be open to Perigueux. The amount expended on the improvement of the navigation of this river has been 184,907l.

The Oise is the channel through which the canals of the north, as well as the Scheldt, the Somme, the Meuse, and the Aisne, communicate with Paris. The advantage of keeping it in a fit condition for the passage of trading vessels cannot therefore be questioned. In July 1825 a company was authorized by an Ordinance to provide funds and begin the works. A lateral canal was begun in 1825, and opened for traffic in 1828. This canal, by a cutting of 17 miles, avoids 28 miles of difficult and even dangerous navigation on the river. The towing and pilotage expenses of a large boat, which now costs only 4 to 5 francs along the canal, formerly caused an expense of 200 francs along the part of the river for which it is substituted. After quitting the canal, the boats are conveyed through a series of basins, in deep water, and free from all sensible current. In 1826 the total number of boats that passed the lock at Manicamp, where the navigation of the canals then terminated, was 1,579; and 2,818 boats paid toll at Compeigne. In 1834 and 1835, the numbers of boats that passed Compeigne were 5,115 and 5,075 respectively. It is supposed that the traffic before 1828 never exceeded 80,000 tons per annum. In 1835 the quantity of goods which passed Compeigne was 380,813 tons, and at Pontoise 429,568 tons. The tolls in 1835 amounted to 9,599l. The total outlay has been 202,988l.

On some future occasion a statement will be offered concerning the royal and military roads, recently opened, and now in progress of construction, in France, as well as the result of the inquiries concerning the establishing of railroads, and the recommendations of the government engineers.

#### ABSTRACT OF THE FOREGOING STATEMENT.

Name of Canal.	Length in English miles.	Number of Locks.	Rise and fall in English feet.	Total cost at the end of 1835, stated in English money.
Donne and Rhine	293	177	1,208	£1,093,362
Isle	84½	39	237	443,822
Artois	61	49	408	561,205
Burgundy	141	191	1,536	2,048,415
Amiens and Brest	218	239	1,711	1,701,889
Seine and Rance	50	48	193	552,934
Blavet	34½	27	162	197,164
Arles and Bouc	27½	4	..	444,094
Vernais	103	117	746	1,005,987
Berry	186	110	737	692,854
Loire	134	45	317	941,680
<b>RIVERS.</b>	<b>1,240½</b>			
Isle	84½	39	237	184,906
Oise	71	..	..	202,988
	<b>1,405</b>			<b>10,973,330</b>

#### ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

March 18.—On the members assembling at the ordinary general meeting, this day, the Right Hon. the President (Mr. Williams Wynn), announced, that in consequence of the loss the Society had recently sustained by the death of its respected Director, Mr. Henry Thomas Colebrooke, to whom the Society owed a debt of exceeding gratitude, not only for its first formation, but also for the constant

labour and attention he had bestowed upon it from the first year of its existence,—the Council had judged proper, as a mark of respect due to the memory of the venerable founder of the Society, and as a token of regret at his loss, to adorn the meeting of that day, without proceeding to any business whatever. The meeting was consequently adjourned till the 1st of April.

**BOTANICAL SOCIETY.**—March 16.—J. E. Gray, Esq., F.R.S., President, in the chair.—Several presents were announced, among which were a new moss found by Mr. R. Leyland in the moor near Malkham farm, Yorkshire, and named by him *Cinclidium styriacum*; a large collection of French plants from Mr. G. E. Dennes, supposed to be a part of the Herbarium of the celebrated botanist Jean Jacques Rousseau; and a few plants from Port Mahon, near Minorca. A paper was then read from Mr. J. Reynolds, being chiefly a translation from Kircher, on certain plants of China. The first mentioned was the China rose, which has the peculiar property of changing its colour twice a day, from purple to white, from the loss of some peculiar ammoniacal principle. 2. *Clusium*. 3. A plant analogous to sage, having a farinaceous pulp, which is very extensively employed as an article of food, and known to the natives by the name of *Quang-lang*. 4. *Clavaria*, which grows only upon insects. Some instances were afterwards noticed, showing the avidity with which the study of botany is pursued among many of the labouring classes in different parts of the country. A short discussion then took place upon the theory of the formation of pericarps, in the course of which Mr. Meeson explained his opinions thereon, as brought forward at a former meeting. It was announced that at the next meeting Mr. Chatterley would read a paper and explain the views of DeCandolle on the geographical distribution of useful plants.

**INSTITUTE OF BRITISH ARCHITECTS.**—March 13.—P. F. Robinson, Esq., V.P. in the chair.—Mr. Donaldson, the secretary, read the report of the Council, announcing the prizes to be awarded in the ensuing year. These were, 1. for a paper 'On the excellencies which distinguish the ancient Athenian architecture, and on the principles of art and science by which they were attained, with regard to design, proportion, light, shade, and colour, construction and adaptation to purpose, situation and materials employed.' 2. 'On the system and principle pursued by the Gothic architects from the eleventh to the fifteenth century inclusive, in the embellishment of colour, of the Architectural Members and other parts of their Religious and Civil Exercises.' 3. 'On the progressive improvement during the last hundred years made in the theory and practice of Construction, illustrated by diagrams and references to buildings.' It was also announced that the Soanean medal would be awarded for the best account of the restoration of some priory, abbey, or other conventual building. The secretary feelingly alluded to the death of Lord Viscount Kingsborough, an honorary member, at Dublin;—after which a translation by Mr. W. R. Hamilton was read, of a paper by M. Schultz, on several Roman constructions on the Rhine, and on the Roman mode of mixing mortars as described by Vitruvius; and a translation of a memoir by W. Rondelet, on the life and constructions of M. Durand, architect, of Paris, and author of several works. At a meeting of the Council held the subsequent evening, Earl de Grey, President, in the chair, it was resolved to apply to Government for more convenient rooms than those which the institution at present held.

#### MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

SAT.	Westminster Medical Society.....	Eight.
MON.	Institute of British Architects.....	Eight.
TUES.	Medico-Chirurgical Society.....	4 p. Eight.
	Zoological Society (Scienc. Business).....	4 p. Eight.
WED.	Society of Arts.....	Eight.

#### FINE ARTS

##### SOCIETY OF BRITISH ARTISTS.

THIS Exhibition, the fourteenth of the Society, seems to us to contain fewer decided failures than any of its predecessors; and on the other hand, a larger show than heretofore of promise, if not of performance.

Mr. Hurlstone stands foremost among the exhibitors, having sent no less than fourteen pictures, all of them works of pretension. We will pass his full-length portraits, which do not please us, from the extent to which he oppresses his subjects with gay decorations. His *Boys of Serra Genesco playing at Il Morra*, "true children of the soil" (No. 7), and his *Italian Shepherd Boy and Wolf-Dog* (No. 243), are the best of his southern groups; the latter, and in particular the dog, is much to our taste. We heard the two children's heads (Nos. 272 & 274,) much admired, and the name of Sir Joshua mentioned before them; but their artist's best work, to our thinking, is his group from the *Prisoner of Chillon*, (199); and the best thing in this group, the figure of the youngest captive—

—So calm and meek.

So softly worn—so sweetly weak,  
With all the while a cheek, whose bloom  
Was as a mockery of the tomb;  
Whose tints as gently sunk away,  
As a departing rainbow's ray:  
An eye of most transparent light,  
That almost made the dungeon bright.

The head of the elder brother too is fine, though wearing too much the character of an *Ecce Homo*; the third head is awkwardly thrust (it almost appears squeezed) between the other two figures, and forms the blemish of a more than clever picture.

Besides the above, this Exhibition does not contain many historical works; among the best of these is a *Repose in Egypt*, by Mr. Cope (363). Here this young artist has tried a higher subject than in any previous work, and, to some extent succeeded. The arrangement of the principal group, to be sure, is mostly borrowed, but it is happy and natural; one of the attendant Angels is reaping corn taller than himself, two others tending an ass; and a tranquillity and grace pervade the whole picture, from which good things are to be augured. The drawing is rather careless and incorrect.

We must notice a few miscellaneous works together. Mr. Parker gives us, of course, a *Smuggler* (381)—here his *one hero*, with the fierce eye and determined lip, is awakened from his sleep of menacing dreams, by a young female, who tells him of danger near; and he springs from the straw where he has been lying, pistol in hand. This is cleverly done—but there is something too much of iteration in this sticking close by one character—nay, by one face. Mr. Clater's *Fisherman* (355), and *Will Watch* (234), may be mentioned with praise, as belonging to the same *Marryat* school. There is always something in Mr. Zeitter's pictures that we like—(161) a *Hungarian Ford at Pesth, on the Danube*, is the largest and most finished work we have seen from his hand: the weather is stormy—and the centre figure standing upright in spite of the wind, and the travellers struggling across the stream, and the crouching groups waiting till their turn shall come, are all touched with a free and forcible hand. Besides his usual number of hunting-pieces done to order, and his heath scenes, Mr. J. P. Davis this year exhibits an "imaginary conversation" in the Shades, between Bonaparte, Scott, and Byron (65). We like far better the same artist's fantasy of *Moth robbing the Squirrel's Nest* (362), though the Elf is far too large and stout compared with the plundered party, to make the service worth painting: the real little hoarder of nuts was a serious adversary to Titania's squirrel. Mr. Dawe gives us a *Monk's Head* (154)—the old father, however, in spite of the epithet *devotional*, looks as if animal rather than spiritual comforts were revolving in his mind. We must mention, too, *Fruits of Idleness* (35), a wounded poacher, with his terrified family—and *Fruits of Industry* (45), a cottage dinner—a pair of domestic scenes, cleverly painted, by Mr. Prentiss: unfortunately for the cause of "truth and soberness," the former is by much the better of the two—more impressive, from its subject, it was sure to be. Mr. Shayer's *Cobbler* (63), may be mentioned with these. Hard by, hang the two last historical pictures we shall mention—*The First Lesson* (92), and *Persuasion* (100), by Miss Fanny Corbux—though too gaily painted, with geranium, rather than carnation tints, they are in her best manner—slight, but very graceful.

We must enumerate a few from among the many Landscapes which these rooms contain—following





## ADVERTISEMENT

**THEATRE OF ANATOMY, 37, LITTLE WINDMILL-STREET, HAYMARKET.**—THE ANNUAL COURSE OF TWELVE LECTURES ON ANATOMY, AS APPLICABLE TO THE ARTS OF DESIGN, AND FOR THE PURPOSES OF GENERAL INFORMATION.

Mr. J. GREGORY SMITH, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, Teacher of Anatomy, Surgeon, &c.

Will commence on TUESDAY, EVENING, APRIL 4, at Half-past Eight, and will be continued on each succeeding Friday and Tuesday, at the same hour.

The Lectures will be illustrated by recent Dissections, and by Preparations of Human and Comparative Anatomy. A practical demonstration and every facility will be offered to those gentlemen who may be desirous of making Studies or Drawings from the Dissections, on the morning subsequent to each Lecture.

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**INSTITUTE OF BRITISH ARCHITECTS,**

Incorporated 7th William IV.

43, King-street, Covent-garden, London.

Extract from the Minutes of the Meeting held on Monday, 12th March, 1837.

Resolved.—That the Medals of the Institute be awarded next year to the Authors of the best Essays on the following Subjects:

1. On the excellencies which distinguish the Ancient Athenian Architecture, and on the principles of art and science by which they were sustained, with regard to design, proportion, light, shade, colour, construction, and adaptation to purpose, to situation, and to the materials employed.

2. On the system and principles pursued by the Gothic Architects, from the 11th to the 15th centuries inclusive, in the embellishment by colour of the architectural members and other parts of their religious and civil Edifices.

3. On the progressive improvement of the Architectural Art, from the 16th to the 18th centuries, illustrated by diagrams and references to buildings.

N.B. Each Essay is to be written in a clear and distinct manner, and to be accompanied by a drawing, executed by a Mark, or Motto, without any name attached thereto.

Resolved.—That the *Socæ Medallion* be awarded for the best restoration of some Priory, Abbey, or similar class of Conventual Building; such as Fountains, Easby, Rievaulx, or Kirkstall Abbey, Yorkshire—Castle Acre Priory, Norfolk—Lanthony Abbey, Monmouthshire, &c. &c., to be drawn from actual measurement, distinguishing in a marked manner the parts existing, and those restored to complete the combination of the Halls, Apartments, Refectory and Offices; accompanied by a description.

N.B. The wish of the Institute is to have a complete and correct delineation of the general arrangement and composition, rather than minute parts at large of the architecture, or highly-included details. The plan is to be as large as a sheet of double elephant paper will admit; and there are to be two elevations, as also two sections through the courts, drawn to the same scale as the plan. The plan, elevations, and sections, to be dated in Indian ink or sepia.

The competition is not confined to Members of the Institute. Further particulars and directions for Candidates may be had on application to the Secretaries, by letter, post paid.

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